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*We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications: and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.*

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Great sorrow will be felt throughout the country for the unhappy fate of the men of the "Tiger". Possibly some may have escaped who were still missing on Friday, but the death-roll of thirty-six is a fact already sadly beyond doubt. Nothing more is yet known than the bare fact that on Thursday night during an attack by torpedo destroyers on the Portsmouth Division of the Home Fleet off S. Catherine's the torpedo destroyer "Tiger", of 400 tons, crossed the bows of the cruiser "Berwick" and was cut completely in two. The night was pitch dark, and all the vessels were without lights. Until the flashlights began their search what happened passed almost unseen, but even in that short interval the "Tiger" had gone down like a stone.

The Home Rule debate on Monday was interesting throughout, with one or two quite brilliant episodes, including an affair of Parliamentary honour between Mr. Clark and Mr. John O'Connor. Mr. Redmond, Lord Percy, Mr. Birrell, Mr. Balfour and Mr. Asquith all made really notable speeches. Mr. Asquith, with much profession of a desire for a change in the present relations of Ireland and Great Britain, declared frankly enough that the time was not ripe, and that his own pledges to his constituents at the last election made it impossible for him to vote for Mr. Redmond's motion. Free trade or Tariff Reform—we are not sure which—blocks the way. Apparently until the Unionists agree to drop Tariff Reform, the Liberals will decline to give Home Rule to Ireland. This is not such a bad arrangement.

But the best part of the debate was at the end, when Mr. Healy struck at Mr. Asquith in his bravest style.

After twenty-eight years of chains and tears at Westminster he has preserved his freshness and force in a wonderful way. There is no doubt about Mr. Healy being far the cleverest and most daring and original man on the Nationalist side. Since Parnell, there has been no one to compare with him in speech and boldness and initiative, and therefore by some eternal unfitness of things Irish he is not leader of his own party; and the cheers that greet him are commonly Unionist cheers! But in this debate he did extract many cheers from his own colleagues—as well as loud ones from the Opposition. His attack on Mr. Asquith was extremely bitter. To-day Mr. Asquith was an important man—to-morrow he might be a god; but Irishmen would not worship at his shrine. And he closed with a savage threat: in spite of Mr. Asquith the Irish would yet "hew a way to freedom". That is the real attitude of the Home Ruler; and yet there are Liberals who profess to believe that something short of separation pure and simple will satisfy the Nationalists!

Mr. Birrell seems likely to pass an Irish University Bill. We do not reckon Mr. Birrell an angel, but one might fairly say that he has succeeded by fearing to tread where fools had rushed in before him. He has given Trinity a wide berth; he has not attempted to combine Belfast with Cork, resisting the fearful joy of the explosion to come. His experiment is tamer and safer. He gives Presbyterian Belfast a university to itself, and puts together Cork, Galway, and a new Roman Catholic college in Dublin. These should lie down together comfortably, which is quite compatible with an occasional rag. None could wish Mr. Birrell God-speed in his enterprise more wholeheartedly than we, who have always admitted the justice of the Irish claim in this matter of university education, and have never hesitated to say so. And we like Mr. Birrell's plan hardly less for what it destroys than for what it makes. The disappearance of any merely examining board is a boon; and the thing dignified by the title of Royal University now goes. We agree with Mr. Balfour as to examinations, not with Melancthon, interpreted by Mr. Birrell.

There was more political than educational interest about the debate on the Bishop of S. Asaph's education bill. Lord Crewe received the Bill with great

tenderness and advised their lordships to read it a second time. But Lord Lansdowne advised adjournment. Lord Crewe wanted to get the House committed to the Bill, which would have made it difficult for the Lords not to accept any compromise the Government might offer, based on the Bishop's Bill. The debate was adjourned. It is a great sign of the time that the Government are willing even to consider a Bill which, however inadequately, would allow denominational teaching in Council schools in school hours. The Government are plainly losing confidence in themselves. The National Society has pronounced dead against the Bill.

Mr. Asquith is again fortunate in the revenue returns for 1907-8. They are £3,700,000 more than the estimates; and to this must be added nearly £1,500,000, so that his surplus is over five millions. By far the most important item of excess is unexpectedly provided by the income-tax. Owing to the change introduced by the differential tax, Mr. Asquith estimated a loss of £1,100,000; in fact there is a gain of £780,000. Excise and stamps are below the estimate by some £300,000, and the Customs are only not quite so bad as Mr. Asquith estimated they would be. On the whole they are indicative of the slackening in trade which may be reckoned on for the year 1908-9. The amount of the death duties is practically the same as last year, though the estimate was for £373,000 less.

The main interest turns on what resources Mr. Asquith will have for his old-age pensions project of 1908-9. He has £1,500,000 which he earmarked in his last Budget. The estimated expenditure for the coming year is some three millions more than that for 1907-8, so that even if the revenue for next year were equal to the past the most favourable view can only give him about four millions. Without fresh taxation Mr. Asquith could do no more than this for a pension scheme. He might increase this modest figure by additional taxation or reduce it to a negligible quantity for the sake of taking off some existing taxes. Which will be the alternative adopted can only be known when he makes his Budget speech.

Sir Charles Dilke was happy in saying that Mr. Haldane's original "Estimate of the Cost of the Proposed Territorial Force" resembled a prospectus. It had much of a prospectus' charm and more of its illusion. The cost of the auxiliary forces in the year 1906-7 was set out side by side with that of Mr. Haldane's newly formulated scheme, in such fashion as to show the economy resulting from the change. The annual saving was given as £1,541,802. But in the first balance sheet of the new force, the estimates for 1908-9, we look for this economy in vain. It is changed to an increase in expenditure of £339,000. Possibly Mr. Haldane can explain. The estimate of 1907 cannot be justified on the ground that the "Special Reserve" was not included. The name did not appear; but the units figured in the bill among the territorial divisions. However, since the name is new, possibly Mr. Haldane will take cover behind it. It would be a triumph indeed to prove the Opposition responsible for the discrepancy, through their determination to maintain the Militia. There remains the difficulty that the "Special Reserve" only accounts for £840,000, even if the rest of the argument held water.

There has been a great deal during the week about a new gun which easily carries a matter of three hundred miles or so. Indeed from some of the accounts there need be no limit to its range. This may be useful if those people in Mars whom Professor Lowell is in the act of discovering should prove hostile towards the earth. We hope that Mr. Haldane will do some "hard thinking" about this new gun. If indeed it is half as powerful as its friends believe, the new Territorial Army may need drastic alterations at the last moment. The thing reduces the 47 to a mere pop-gun.

Radicals who are satisfied with Tuesday's fiscal debate are easily pleased. They hoped to get an explicit

declaration from Mr. Balfour, and they got it, and the attempt of Mr. Runciman to commit him to more than he said was mere trickery of debate. Social reform and imperial responsibilities alike make inevitable a widening of the basis of taxation, and, as Mr. Balfour said, it would be madness to look for increased revenue to sugar, tea, the income-tax, or the death duties. Free Traders who say that small taxes on a large number of articles are necessarily an absurd policy are, he declared, but showing their insular arrogance.

The Port of London Bill is not likely to meet with any serious opposition in Parliament. The London River needs some control more effective than the attentions of the Thames Conservancy. The real test of the present scheme will come after its enactment, when the twenty-five members of the new authority take up their powers to dredge, to purchase and to tax. Mr. Lloyd George has arranged most of their purchases in advance; the last of the dock companies fell into line on Thursday morning. It is so welcome a change in the spirit of Liberal legislation, this new system of acquiring property and paying for it, that no one is likely to cavil at the price. One does not look a gift-horse in the mouth; at least not till afterwards.

Mr. Lloyd George has included in the Bill provisions for dealing with the obvious evil of casual labour. But how is the new Port Authority to better things? We do not see. Public bodies and Government Departments have shown themselves no farther-sighted than other employers in dealing with casual labour. The conditions of employment of telegraph boys, in particular, are a standing model of what conditions ought not to be. The change of his employer can mean very little to the dock labourer. What is achieved is in substance a cartel of the dock companies with the blessing of the Board of Trade. It may prove, we hope it will, to the advantage of the trader. But the trader is to pay in advance.

It is hard to say which is the greater mystery—who stole or mislaid the Crown jewels, or who blew up Lord Ashtown's house? May we suggest to Mr. Birrell that he shall put Mr. Preston on the track of the jewels now that this gentleman has completed his various reports on the Glenahiry outrage? This would be something like business. On Wednesday Mr. Birrell made a statement, passionate and sensational, about the jewel mystery. He declared that the story in certain papers that Lord Aberdeen's son had taken the jewels was a "cowardly falsehood" and he offered to prove an alibi. We do not think an alibi is necessary. It would be more to the point to take action for criminal libel against any paper printing the story.

When the other story is ventilated—that Lord Ashtown tried to blow up his own house in order to hurt the reputation of the innocent—Mr. Birrell shows no leonine wrath. He is cool as a cucumber. Yet might not that also be described as a "cowardly falsehood"? And supposing that instead of being told—or hinted—against Lord Ashtown, it had been told or hinted against a good Liberal—for instance against Lord Aberdeen? Would not Mr. Birrell have been leonine then? We fear party spirit is suffered to enter even into things like these. Then Mr. Belloc with fine taste dubs the two judges whose judgment was in favour of Lord Ashtown "Unionist hacks". He withdrew the words at the command of the Speaker. But such withdrawal, as we all know by now, is merely a technical or nominal apology.

Mr. Gladstone admitted to the deputation of barmaids on Tuesday that by the Licensing Bill justices might deprive barmaids of their livelihood. There are a hundred thousand barmaids, besides as many other female workers on licensed premises who would be affected. If the Bill merely proposed that women and girls should be protected in their employment, as they are in factories, as to their hours and the healthiness of the premises, there would be everything to say for it.



But giving the justices power to put down this branch of women's employment is quite another thing. Are they to say that women shall not use their own discretion as to what occupations they shall enter; and that the justices may decide that they shall not be clerks or shop assistants? Barmaids naturally resent the assumption that they are engaged in a disreputable trade from which they may be barred whenever the justices think fit.

Turn the figures how they will, the Liberals cannot get any comfort out of the prosecutions for drunkenness at Peckham. During the contest it seems that there were only two cases of drunkenness in the police-court; whilst Mr. Gladstone was obliged to state yesterday that there were only ten cases during the fortnight before the election and that in the corresponding fortnight last year the number of cases was also ten. The Liberals cannot understand these disconcerting figures. Because their candidate was flung out by a great majority by an electorate which does not desire a policy of public plunder, Liberals rushed to the absurd conclusion that Peckham was full of drunkards, and that beer flowed in the streets as freely as blood did during the French Revolution. They have now learned through their own Home Secretary that Peckham was a model of sobriety. Surely they ought to have cheered Mr. Gladstone's figures loudly instead of sitting mute.

Instead of showing happiness, however, they show what we fear looks very like small spite. Dr. Macnamara certainly took his beating like a man, and, after the poll was announced, declared the people had behaved admirably throughout the contest. But this is not the style of the Attorney-General. Answering one of the Labour members (who are ever trying to convict their followers of drunkenness) he said on Monday that he was "considering how far it may be possible effectively to limit expenditure of that kind" at elections—that is, expenditure which virtually amounts to corruption. The idea is to insinuate that the Conservatives bribed and debased the electorate at Peckham; and the Attorney-General showed nice skill in doing this. Of course the Attorney-General is not going to do anything beyond insinuate. He knows quite well there is no case.

The Mile End Board of Guardians has been found by a report of a Local Government Board inspector to be as corrupt a body as West Ham and Poplar. A criminal prosecution must surely follow these disclosures. Some of the guardians were probably merely negligent, and took no active part in the swindling that has been going on. But the charges against the ring of contractors who did the building and supplied the coals, who were involved, as the report says, in a conspiracy to defraud the ratepayers, ought to be pressed as they were against the offenders at West Ham and Poplar. Some of the guardians "made a bit" by letting houses to the Board as cottage homes; and the annual repairs were frequently as much as the rents. Faked building and coal accounts figure as at West Ham; but nothing is said about sale of offices. All Boards of Guardians are under suspicion, and the expected new Poor Law legislation will not put an end to them too soon.

Nothing very startling has happened abroad this week. Prince Bülow has been in Vienna and had meetings with Baron von Aehrenthal and an audience of the Emperor. Apparently the German and Austro-Hungarian policy as to the Balkans and the British and Russian proposals for Macedonia is aloofness. The Prince's recent speech in the Reichstag sufficiently stated the German view of Sir Edward Grey's plan, and now Austria-Hungary regrets her inability to accept it. Germany and Austria-Hungary are intent on securing the adhesion of Italy; and much is being said of inducements offered to her with this end and of increasing her zeal as a member of the dreibund. Prince Bülow is, it is believed, next week to visit Signor Tittoni, as he has

visited Baron von Aehrenthal—a sequel to the meeting of the German Emperor and the King of Italy.

Italy, however, has already accepted the Russian Macedonian proposals. The British plan goes further, but a combination of the two might have the support of Great Britain, Russia, France, and Italy; and things are apparently developing in a way to suggest that these Powers will be acting together on some understanding, Germany and Austria-Hungary opposing. The prospects of Macedonian reform are not therefore very much brighter. But in the meantime an event has happened which is traced directly to the British and Russian proposals. At a Macedonian Congress held this week it was decided to dissolve all the Bulgarian bands in Macedonia, and wait until it is seen what is done about the Governor-General and the European Commission, the British and Russian plans respectively; both of which have been put forward by the Bulgarian organisation.

Dr. Hills is to go to Berlin as the American Ambassador, after all. According to an official statement issued after a visit on Tuesday to the President by the German Ambassador at Washington, the Kaiser never described Dr. Hills as *persona non grata*, and in fact last November accepted his appointment cordially. But after this, according to the statement, "apparently some remarks made in casual conversation have been distorted by gossip and exaggerated by rumour so as to give a totally erroneous impression to the whole matter; but the two Governments have never shared this misunderstanding". Both the German and the American newspapers have worked themselves into a fine fury about the slighting of virtuous poverty. Probably all the Kaiser ever did was to hint that the one drawback to Dr. Hills was that he was a poor man, and that the Americans are somewhat penurious with their Ambassadors' supplies. Generally it is true that the virtuous man with riches has advantages over the virtuous poor man without. What the Americans should do is to produce virtuous millionaires.

France continues to chastise the Moors and there are signs that order may shortly be restored, though an unkind fate seems to decree that every optimistic declaration of General d'Amade shall be followed by a sharp rap of the knuckles. In the operations against the Madakra tribe the French only narrowly escaped serious disaster, showing how little trust can be placed in assurances that the end is near. Weeks ago Mulai Hafid was supposed to have exhausted his resources, yet he appears to be still powerful in Fez and is urging the people to send him reinforcements with which to attack Rabat. In the opinion of Abd-el-Aziz the French have made the mistake of fighting the Moors with too much consideration. The Shawia do not understand chastisement which leaves them in possession of their property and their liberty. Why do not the French make raids? he asked M. du Taillis. Raids might be called robbery in Europe, he explained; in Morocco they are regarded as war.

There was little contentious matter and less new in the Calcutta debate on the Indian Budget. Despite famine, bad trade and decrease in revenue from land and railways, the year ended with a surplus not much under the estimate. Economies, chiefly in military expenditure, turned the balance. It is significant that exchange, after several years of profit, now shows a loss. This is connected with "an unprecedented activity in imports" and some slackness of export trade. It began about the time of the financial crisis last autumn and still continues. It may become necessary for the Government to release some of its gold standard reserve to restore parity. Such a contingency is one of the dangers of an artificial currency system. The famine, from first to last, will cost over three millions, to be met out of revenue.

Yet the financial forecast is not unfavourable, and some notable schemes are in hand. Ten millions fresh capital is to be provided for railways—not before it is

wanted—and one million devoted to irrigation. On the administrative side a Congress dream is to be realised in a tentative plan for the separation of the judicial and executive functions of civil officials. This experiment is to be tried in Bengal—of all places. Of course the native Indian members were strong in their opposition to the financial proposals of the Government, especially condemning the military charges, which Lord Kitchener bluntly declared could not be further reduced. The notorious Mr. Gokhale attacked Mr. Morley with a virulence which brought a rebuke from Lord Minto. The promised measures for enlisting native chiefs and notables in larger number in the various councils of the State will be introduced in the coming year.

Sir Hubert von Herkomer, in his letter on the presentation to the Bishop of London of his portrait painted by Sir Hubert, paid the Bishop one of the most ill-chosen compliments we have ever come across. "He put me strangely in concert with myself. I liked myself better after having been with him." If there is one thing the great Christian teacher will not do, it is to make a man pleased with himself. It is, of course, the established method of the fashionable popular preacher. But the Bishop of London is very certainly not a Rev. Morphine Velvet, though he may be in peril of popularity. There is no doubt a certain humour in Sir Hubert von Herkomer thinking it a tribute to the Bishop that he had made Sir Hubert think more of himself.

Dentistry is always an expensive luxury, and when you have agreed to pay for the "blood, bone and brains" of a fashionable dentist who boasts that he can do what no other dentist in Europe can do, the bill is likely to be something astonishing. Mr. Richardson made out a bill for £570, and the jury, recognising the hopelessness of exactly estimating the merits between him and Mr. Fremlin, adopted the good old plan of splitting the difference and calling it £278. Mr. Richardson has that supremely useful faculty of not undervaluing himself; partly it is constitutional no doubt, and partly native American, and a man who despises English dentistry so superciliously very probably over-estimated his own value. If a dentist or surgeon can persuade patients to accept his own valuation he becomes fashionable, and there is no saying what is a reasonable amount for even the most ordinary services. They are a privilege that must be paid for exorbitantly, in terror of dental and surgical operations.

Mr. Crockett chose to describe his book "Me and Myn" as a collection of short stories after he had sold "Vida" to Messrs. Clarke, but would he have done so when he sold "Me and Myn" to Mr. Fisher Unwin? Short stories do not sell so well as the regular novel. He landed his publishers in a libel action by selling, as the judge said, one novel to the plaintiff, Mr. Unwin, and another, "Vida", to the defendants, Messrs. Clarke, at a time when the sale of the first would interfere with the sale of the second. Messrs. Clarke, finding "Me and Myn" was to be first in the field, adopting Mr. Crockett's description to them, spoke of it in a circular as short stories. Mr. Unwin sued for libel. The statement was held not to mean that he had published short stories as a novel. As to damage to his literary property in "Me and Myn", that was bound to suffer by the mere publication of "Vida". So he lost on both points; but both publishers may well complain of Mr. Crockett having sold them a lawsuit with his books.

There has been much absurd talk and more absurd writing about what the papers call "Oxford's secret trial". Oxford found it convenient to row a course at a certain hour; the "critics", self-styled, were not aware of their movements, and so were not there. What is that to Oxford or anyone else? The Oxford and Cambridge crews row for amusement, not for the benefit of the gentry who "negotiate bridges" and "hunt leather". Naturally they will arrange their times of practice to suit themselves. What right has anyone to object? They might row in dead of night, if they liked.

#### IRISH VISIONS AND 'VARSITIES.

UNIONISTS have every reason to be satisfied with both the Irish debates in the Commons this week. On Monday they argued that the Imperial Parliament is a better authority for the governance of Ireland than a Dublin Parliament would be. On Tuesday they welcomed, in spite of a few dissentients, a Bill which will remove the only serious disability maintained by the Union against Irish Roman Catholics, the refusal of facilities for University education under conditions which they can, as a body, conscientiously accept. Meanwhile the Nationalists had protested on Monday against the inability of Parliament to legislate satisfactorily for Ireland, only to accept within twenty-four hours from that presumably helpless body the promise of a scheme which will allay the principal Irish grievance capable of remedy by legislation.

We do not in the least grudge Mr. Birrell his well-earned praise. Melancholy as the thought must often be, a Minister of the Crown is necessarily a national representative, by whose wisdom or folly the nation stands to be judged. Mr. Birrell having shown himself one of the worst administrators who ever mismanaged the affairs of daily life in Ireland, and having met with signal failure as an experimental legislator in two out of the three kingdoms, has done better than any of his predecessors with a most difficult and intricate question—a question which wrecked Mr. Gladstone in 1873, and has since then caused cross-divisions in both English parties. Perhaps he will go down to posterity as a political success under the style of "Single-Bill Birrell".

He had paid for his belated triumph in anticipation. No Liberal was really comfortable on Monday. During the General Election the Liberals had, with the hearty concurrence of the British voter, maintained an almost complete conspiracy of silence about Home Rule. It was dead, it was a bogey, it was anything except the cause to which Mr. Gladstone had pledged his party and which his successors have never repudiated. But Mr. Redmond, long-suffering as he showed himself towards his allies, at last insisted on a public declaration of their views. He has got it. The Liberals are again pledged to Home Rule. Though a score of them revolted, and some six-score fled the field, the party, led by the Ministers, has once more affirmed the Home Rule article. Mr. Simon's amendment declaring the necessary supremacy of the Imperial Parliament makes no difference at all: the same superscription was over Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bills, and was shown in the debates of those days to be, for practical purposes, a mere pious opinion. In Ireland, on the other hand, Mr. Redmond's renewed acceptance of the idea will expose him to the mercy of the critics who have already labelled his party as "Federal Unionists". No amount of panegyrics over the monuments to 1798 rebels will efface his cheerful acquiescence in a nominal imperial supremacy. He has sacrificed the shadow which Separatists worship without securing the substance which Home Rulers expect. For though the Liberals have nailed the green flag to the mast, they nailed it with muffled hammers, and most of them will undoubtedly implore the people of Great Britain not to look at it. Mr. Healy grasped the situation, even if he forgot political expediency, and gave English Liberals one of the reminders which they so intensely resent of the genuine feeling of Irish Nationalists towards English opportunists. Incidentally he ruined Mr. Redmond's immediate game in Ireland, which is to pretend that a Home Rule resolution passed by the Commons means the immediate repeal of the Union. Thanks to Mr. Healy, every Irish voter will know that Mr. Asquith does not intend legislation until a number of unlikely things come to pass. But the English voter will not forget that Mr. Asquith's party is once more solemnly pledged to introduce a Home Rule Bill whenever the English electorate may cease to show its repugnance to the idea. At the next General Election every Liberal candidate who does not expressly promise to vote against Home Rule will stand revealed as a Home Ruler. If, in the face of this, the Liberals return to power, they will have to act up to their professions.



Consciousness of these unpalatable facts was not allowed by Mr. Birrell to disturb his plan for the settlement of the Irish higher educational grievance. There was humour in his situation. The man who had stood forth as the champion of undenominational education in England revealed himself as the inventor of two new Universities with denominational atmospheres. The Government which, through Mr. Bryce, had published in an emphatic take-it-or-leave-it style the only solution which they could possibly accept—the amalgamation of all places of higher education in Ireland into a single composite University, the construction of a ring-fence within which Protestant and Roman Catholic students were to learn unity from the inevitable wrangles of their pastors—this Government, when it comes to legislation, produces something entirely different. And the Government is right. The only certain result of Mr. Bryce's plan was the ruin of Trinity, and that was its chief attraction in the eyes of certain Roman Catholic and Presbyterian spokesmen. Mr. Birrell has looked into facts more closely than his predecessor. His tribute to T.C.D. must have been heard with mixed feelings by those Nationalists who always try to hide the fact that Trinity was eighty years ahead of Oxford and Cambridge in opening her doors to Roman Catholics, because they do not care to confess that their dislike of Trinity is far more political than theological. Mr. Birrell has realised that Trinity cannot be swamped without irreparable loss to the cause of true learning in Ireland, that most Roman Catholics refuse for perfectly intelligible and honourable reasons to go to Trinity, and that Ulster Presbyterians in fact do not go there. He therefore leaves Dublin University and Trinity College untouched. He proposes to raise to the status of a University Queen's College, Belfast, which in its character and atmosphere already commends itself to the professional and commercial classes of Protestant Ulster, but which requires development on the material side if Belfast is to rank beside Glasgow and Aberdeen. He abolishes that purely examining body, the Royal University of Ireland, and substitutes for it a teaching University with three constituent colleges—the existing Queen's Colleges of Cork and Galway, and a new college in Dublin, which will, presumably, take the place and inherit the traditions of the Roman Catholic "University College" in Stephen's Green, a college hitherto unrecognised by the State. Both new Universities are to be in form undenominational; no tests are to exist for students or teachers. As to students, this provision is sure in course of time to bring men of different creeds within the same walls. As regards teachers, it will allow the respective Senates free choice of professors, will not muzzle those professors, and will not in any way prevent the Dublin Senate from appointing teachers to whose care a Roman Catholic parent can commit his son with the approval of his Church. For every man in Ireland avows his creed alike on the census papers and in his daily life, and a Senate need never ask questions which would shock an undenominationalist if it desires to be sure of a teacher's religion.

We do not say that the scheme is ideal, but, given the facts of Irish life, we are convinced that on the whole it affords a better prospect than any immediately possible alternative of that improvement in Irish education which is Ireland's greatest need. But that prospect depends upon its hearty acceptance by the Roman Catholic Bishops. If they dislike it, their people will not make the best of it, and a mere grudging acceptance will not be enough. It may not offer the solution which the Bishops would prefer, but it now rests with them to recognise that the intellectual hopes of two-thirds of the people of Ireland depend upon their verdict, to consider carefully whether, given the political facts of the British Islands, they will be content to take the new University as a satisfactory training-ground for young men of their faith, and to express their opinion frankly and decisively. Neither Mr. Dillon nor Mr. William O'Brien, who both welcomed the scheme, can be regarded as a spokesman of the Bishops on educational questions. Mr. Healy, who is in the Bishops' confidence, was apparently exhausted by his efforts of the previous evening. Mr. Redmond also was silent. It is for the Bishops themselves to speak.

The new University has the defect of being what Mr. Birrell calls a "sprawling" University, but Cork may yet develop on its own lines without detriment to the new foundation. There is already a rising chorus of carping criticism in Ireland. Some Presbyterians are so angry that Trinity is unsacked and Catholics subsidised that they refuse to be placated by the new dignity given to Belfast. Other Irishmen will in a worthier spirit oppose a scheme which seems to stereotype the academic separation of young men. But youth is friendly and inquisitive, and it is not in human nature that Trinity and the Dublin College of the new University can remain to each other sealed books. If Ireland in a few years' time has a University boatrace of her own on the Boyne, she will take a far longer step towards domestic peace than any Bill or any policy can compass.

#### FISCAL SIGNS.

THE debate last Tuesday marks an important stage in the development of the fiscal controversy. Mr. Mond's resolution seems to have been put down partly to keep up the spirits of the Free Traders, partly in the hope that Mr. Balfour might be drawn into admissions inconsistent in the Liberal view with the terms of the Birmingham resolution. This hope was based entirely on the erroneous estimate of Mr. Balfour's position which in certain Liberal quarters is made to do duty for the arguments in support of Free Trade in which its advocates are deficient. The terms of Mr. Mond's resolution might have been taken from some popular presentation of the Free Trade case of sixty years ago. The course of the debate was different from what was anticipated by its promoters, and the Free Traders were forced to see that they were face to face with the extremely practical issues which Mr. Balfour discussed in his admirable speech. Thoughtful Liberals now admit that it is only a question of a very short period before the Unionists are returned to power, and that when that event takes place they will unquestionably produce a scheme of tariff reform. In these circumstances it is desirable to consider how events are shaping towards the practical solution of the questions involved.

The present Government has been impotent except when it has tried a constructive economic policy which Tariff Reformers approve, and there the progress effected is due not to the Government as a whole but to the fact that Mr. Lloyd George has had the good sense to accept the advice of his opponents. If the Government had not carried the Merchant Shipping Act, it would certainly have been necessary that the Unionists should do so when they came in. Mr. Lloyd George deserves much credit for the courage and energy with which he took up the Patent Act, but the Act itself is in fact due almost entirely to Tariff Reformers, particularly Mr. Ivan Levinstein and Sir Joseph Lawrence. The project of a census of production had the strong approval of Tariff Reformers, including Mr. Chamberlain himself. Though the Act itself is so drafted that it is almost impossible to formulate questions in accordance with its terms which would give the Board of Trade the information they require, there is no doubt that the result of the effort to complete the inquiry will place in the hands of the officials much material for improving the classification of the trade returns and other objects closely related to the successful arrangement of a tariff. The constitution of the Advisory Committees under this Act is closely analogous to that of Mr. Chamberlain's Tariff Commission. In fact many members of the Commission sit on Mr. Lloyd George's committees. In another sphere of activity attempts have been made to secure by negotiation with foreign countries better terms for British manufacturers than occur automatically under the operation of most-favoured-nation clauses. Such direct negotiations have taken place with Bulgaria and Roumania. But while the tariff rates secured are more favourable in some instances than those obtained under most-favoured-nation treatment, they are still very much higher than the rates which British manufacturers had to pay before the tariffs of those countries were revised, thus

emphasising the necessity for some bargaining power stronger than we now possess. The Government have tried to maintain the Sugar Convention without infringing the Free Trade principles they profess, and they have only succeeded in making the Sugar Convention really protective. They have protested against duties upon foreign imports, yet by the regulation in connexion with the outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease they have actually prohibited the importation of hay and straw from some foreign countries and given a substantial preference to Canada. In view of these and other circumstances, we do not wonder that well-informed journals on the Continent express their surprise that a Government pledged to the maintenance of Free Trade should thus practise Protection. The truth is, it is impossible for any Government to take action in the economic sphere without aiding the efforts of Tariff Reformers. The Free Trade era is over.

It is no doubt very provoking for the advocates of the old system to find the pressure of facts so strong against them. On the unsubstantial theories of orthodox economics it ought no doubt to be impossible to harmonise in a single tariff the four objects of Mr. Balfour's policy, that is, revenue, prevention of unfair competition, power of negotiation, and preference. Yet three of these objects are found to be reconciled in the tariff of practically every civilised country, and all four may be found in the tariffs of France and the United States. Mr. Mond's contention that the expense of collecting such duties as Mr. Balfour contemplates will almost outweigh the advantage derived from the revenue obtained was at once shown to be without foundation. The cost of collection of the United States Customs is three per cent. of the revenue obtained. The cost of collection of the British Customs is a trifle under three per cent. If we take Mr. Mond's own basis and calculate the expense on the volume of imports affected, it is still more in favour of the change Mr. Balfour desires. The objection that we have many duties from which only a small revenue is obtained applies with great force, as Mr. Balfour pointed out, to our present tariff, under which we get trifling sums running down to as low an amount as £1 for the specific duties levied on certain manufactured articles under the sugar duty. The suggestion that Mr. Balfour's policy is inconsistent with the sound principles of finance is ridiculous in the light of history and theory. The system he wishes to reach is very much what all the great practical financiers of the past hoped to attain. A moderate preferential corn duty, such as Tariff Reformers desire, cannot be condemned. It had the approval of the greatest of the advocates of Free Trade, Adam Smith. Writing of the reform of the fiscal system as it was in his time, he says: "By removing all prohibitions, and by subjecting all foreign manufactures to such moderate taxes, as it was found from experience afforded upon each article the greatest revenue to the public, our own workmen might still have a considerable advantage in the home market, and many articles, some of which at present afford no revenue to Government, and others a very inconsiderable one, might afford a very great one."

It cannot be too often pointed out that in carrying forward the policy of Tariff Reform, the Unionist Party has the whole weight of British tradition, British instinct for sound administration, and the continuous policy of England for hundreds of years behind it. The fiscal system we have at the present time was certainly never contemplated by the great Free Traders. Whatever their pure theory might have been, in their actual suggestions they were generally very practical, and, as Mr. Balfour pointed out, they would certainly have viewed with the strongest disapproval that overwhelming dependence upon direct taxation to which Free Traders are being driven.

Rapid as the progress of Tariff Reform during the last year has been, there are two dangers to be guarded against. If we are ever to have Free Trade within the Empire, it is necessary that the trade of the colonies with foreign countries should grow greatly, otherwise the financial difficulty of such a policy could not be overcome. We should therefore not view with jealousy or disapproval the efforts of the colonies to extend their trade relations with foreign Powers, but

it will make all the difference whether this movement takes place as a substitute for preference with the mother country or in association with the greater development of that policy. The new Franco-Canadian Convention shows that in existing circumstances commercial treaties with foreign Powers must diminish the margin of preference, and if a long period elapses before the adoption of reciprocity, and such treaties are largely extended, there can be no doubt that the area of negotiation with the colonies must be greatly narrowed, and the volume of our trade with them considerably diminished. It is therefore of the utmost importance that preference should be adopted by this country without delay. We have burnt two Sybilline books; we cannot repeat the process without disaster to the Empire.

The second danger arises at home. During recent months the Tariff Reform movement has assumed a new phase. The pressure is coming from below. Tariff Reform has now a firm grip of the great masses of the people. If the depression of trade became serious, still more if the distress consequent upon such depression were aggravated by international complications and financial stringency, the country might be forced into Tariff Revolution instead of Tariff Reform. For years before the outbreak of the French revolutionary wars, English statesmen had been steadily, moderately, and soberly reforming the tariff; particularly during Pitt's administration from 1784 to 1792. If the policy of that time could have been continued on the same lines, there can be no doubt that the country would have passed through the great changes of the industrial revolution without those extreme measures which were called forth by the war. How different the later history of Europe in tariff matters would have been!

#### EPISCOPUS EX MACHINA.

THE Government's affairs are getting into a terrible tangle. They had their choice at the beginning of introducing more or less reasonable Bills, which the country would accept and the Lords find very difficult to reject, or forcing the hand of the Lords by sending up Bills so unpalatable that they were certain to throw them out. Ministers elected to come down on the side of forcing the Lords, and precipitating the great struggle. Their appeal to the country would be that they could not pass Bills because of the Lords—therefore the Lords must go. But the appeal has fallen flat; and the Government find themselves in the unhappy position of losing their Bills and yet raising no one against the Lords. They have almost nothing to show for their stewardship. The Irish University Bill is something certainly, but it is a bait to catch the people of England. So the Government attitude is reversed. Unable to upset the Lords, Ministers are now most anxious to pass their Bills, and would, we doubt not, give much not to have introduced them in a form impossible of passing. They see what a bad calculation they made. The outlook for the Education Bill is awkward in the extreme. They played for opposition at first, and they have got even more than they had asked for, now, when in changed conditions they are desperately anxious to pass the Bill. Every day made it more evident, too, that the Bill was impossible and had absolutely no chance of getting through. What were they to do? It could not pass without some radical alteration in the scheme. How could they propose such an alteration and save any face at all? There seemed no way out. Then suddenly a bishop comes on the stage and at a stroke transforms the whole situation and makes an opening for the Government. The Bishop of S. Asaph makes a proposal giving away so much that Churchmen prize that the Government can with decency go back on some of their proposals and give something away to the Church. Thus they may win a name for conciliation and get an Education Bill of some sort through, and so save their face after all. This miraculous interposition in behalf of the Government sets one thinking. What a strange coincidence that the Bishop of S. Asaph should come forward at the very moment when the Government wanted him! It would be interesting if we could cross-examine Mr. Asquith,



Mr. McKenna and the Bishop of S. Asaph as to negotiations, meetings, and arrangements. Was the Bishop's Bill known inside the Board of Education? Or rather how much of the Bill was drafted inside that Department?

The present Bishop of S. Asaph has never been "keen" on denominational religious teaching, and we are not surprised that he should be willing to give up most things in order to get rid of the educational controversy. It seems odd that a bishop should not think religious teaching according to the views of the Church of which he is a bishop a matter of first-rate importance; but plainly he does not, and so is able to make a proposal which Lord Crewe not only would look at but received very tenderly. The compromise shortly is this: the Church gives up her schools with all voice in the appointment of teachers; she gives up the use of her school buildings without payment; she disclaims all inquiry into a teacher's religious position; she acquiesces in the universal establishment of undenominationalism and its payment by public money, while denominational teaching is to be paid for by the denominations out of their own pockets. On the other hand, the Government allow any teachers who will to give denominational religious teaching and allow such teaching to be given three days a week, as an extra to the established undenominational teaching, in all schools during school hours.

It is, of course, obvious that the Government must be in an extremely nervous condition even to consider a proposal that involves the repeal of the Cowper-Temple clause. It is going back on everything they have said or proposed since the election of 1906 and threatens what the nonconformists have always talked of as the very palladium of their position. It means throwing over Mr. McKenna altogether, in which the Government show real wisdom. Indeed, it is on the surface so shameless a giving away of the Government's avowed education policy that we should be more than foolish to take it for all it appears. If the Government agree to this, it is because they calculate that the formal establishment in all schools of undenominationalism as the State religion will far more than balance the admission on certain days of denominational teaching as an extra. They shrewdly suspect that an occasional extra will have no chance with the regular daily undenominational lesson, and that before long the denominational element will disappear and undenominationalism remain in sole possession; and in the meantime they would have got possession gratis of all the Church schools.

There is a good deal in this calculation. The Bishop of S. Asaph's proposals give such an immense advantage to undenominationalism that we doubt if either Anglican or any other religious teaching could hold out against it. Undenominationalism would be established by law, paid for by public money, and taught every day; Church or other religious teaching would be optional, paid for privately, and permissible only on certain days. Such a plan is an invitation to parents, and children, and the whole public to regard definite religious teaching as of the very smallest account. This Bishop of the Church of England is proposing to establish as the national religious teaching in the elementary schools a political compromise, invented by politicians in 1870 and known by the name of a clause in an Act of Parliament; an arrangement of Christianity (we can hardly find terms for it that do not sound profane) unknown in any other age, unknown in any other country, unknown to any branch of the Catholic Church. On this ground, even if there were no other objections, we could never consent to a settlement on the lines of the Bishop's Bill. And we are glad to know that there is extremely small, in fact no chance, of his Bill being accepted by Churchmen. And we are not sure the Government's backing would much help its chances. In fact any proposal the Government may make is almost certain to be wrecked, as was their Bill of 1906, on the teacher question. If you allow the regular teachers to give denominational teaching, you cannot exclude religious considerations from their appointment; if you do not allow them, you are committing an injustice no Churchman will permit.

It is natural that at first sight those whose business

is not in these matters should think the Bishop's Bill provided a settlement; for it does contain the germs of the two essential terms in the only settlement that in our view can be final. It makes all schools State schools and it admits denominational teaching in all schools, abrogating the Cowper-Temple clause. But it nullifies the effect of the second term by the proposed establishment of undenominationalism: an insidious move whose effect the plain man would probably not perceive. In any lasting settlement Cowper-Temple teaching must take its place only as one amongst the denominations, to be given if parents request it. All denominations, including (Irish as it may sound) undenominationalism, must be put on an absolute equality in all schools. The children whose parents wish them to have Church teaching must have it as the regular and complete daily religious lesson: and the Roman Catholics Roman Catholic teaching; the nonconformists nonconformist or "undenominational", as they prefer. This will avoid all undue preference, and secure real freedom, the freedom to have as well as the freedom not to have.

#### ARMY COUNCIL OR COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF?

SOME four years have now passed since the Army Council came into being; and this week a considerable change in its constitution takes place. The first Chief of the General Staff, Sir Neville Lyttelton, retires, and Sir William Nicholson takes his place. Till he became Quartermaster-General Sir William was regarded as one of the Army's strong men. But since then he has adopted a very non-committal attitude. Possibly it was advisable to do so; or the Government might not have appointed him to the higher post. But now he has reached this eminence, if he simply follows in his predecessor's footsteps and tamely registers the decrees of every new War Secretary, the public and the Army will be grievously disappointed. We have heard much lately on the subject of expert advice. Lord Roberts says one thing; and the next day Mr. Haldane comes to the House of Commons armed with other expert opinions—all made to order. But these were so guarded and qualified with such a very big "if"—six months in hand at the outbreak of a big war during which the Territorial Army can be trained—that they were practically valueless. But the point really is, Has expert opinion a better chance now than under the old system? Recent events would seem to show that this is not so; and that a Commander-in-Chief—presumably the most authoritative soldier of the day—spoke with greater authority and was listened to with more attention than the four lesser men who act as expert advisers to the Secretary of State. But it must be remembered that the Army Council is in a different position from the Naval Board. Few laymen—except, of course, Lord Esher—venture to express opinions on the intricacies of naval details. The matter is altogether too abstruse and technical. But with the Army it is different. Most men in the street or the Commons have their views as to how the Army should be "run". Thus every new War Secretary, after a few months' experience, thinks that he knows everything, and that his predecessor knew nothing, with the result that there is no continuity of policy, and that the Army is perennially cursed by crude reforms and reformers.

The time has now come when the Army Council must be put on its final trial. For the first time we have a man of real ability as chief military member. If the Council does not now prove a success, it will be necessary before long to reconsider the whole position, and determine whether it would not be better to return to the old system of the Commandership-in-Chief. There are, of course, objections to this plan. Under our modern parliamentary system the Commander-in-Chief can never be really what his name implies. But the advantages perhaps outweigh the defects, since a Commander-in-Chief—even with the limited powers conferred upon Lord Wolseley—exercised the wholesome check, which the Army Council has not hitherto done, on the rash changes and the ever-recurring

opportunistic reductions which are inaugurated through the whim of a parliamentary chief or the exigencies of party politics. The Army Council was the direct outcome of the crude and ill-considered report of the Esher Committee. When published, the public of course received it with acclamation, because it condemned in no measured terms the ever-unpopular War Office régime. So it was accepted by the Government of the day, and the illusive new millennium of perfection was inaugurated. At the time there was something to be said in favour of drastic change. The Commandership-in-Chief had become to some extent an anomaly. Yet after trial it is very doubtful if the anomaly was not better than the remedy. In any case the result has not been satisfactory, and confidence in War Office administration, slight before, is at vanishing point now. At the start there was no soldier of first-class ability or real eminence on the Council, and there was no sentiment or tradition to back it up. When a Commander-in-Chief, who at any rate was supposed to be the best man available, existed, there was the likelihood that the most authoritative expert advice would be tendered to the political chief, and he was responsible in the nation's opinion, although of course the Secretary of State was finally responsible to Parliament. Since then there has been no real check on ambitious and headstrong Ministers of War. The system is hard on the professional members of the board. They are expected to resign if they do not agree with their chief. But what would be the use of their doing so? They know perfectly well that if they did others more complacent would be found to replace them; and their own careers would probably be wrecked. In the issue they have become the laughing-stock of the country and the Army, since the same board has in turn blessed the totally conflicting schemes of Mr. Arnold-Forster and Mr. Haldane. The Commander-in-Chief, on the other hand, owing to his pre-eminence in the military profession and his more individual responsibility, was in a stronger position; whilst in the absence of the fictitious responsibility of an Army Council, it was less easy for the War Secretary to shelter himself behind his military advisers.

The restoration of the Commandership-in-Chief would only be another case of history repeating itself. In 1783 the office was abolished; but ten years later it was found necessary to restore it, so bad had matters become and so completely had power and patronage drifted into the hands of the Secretary at War. Two years later the Duke of York became Commander-in-Chief, and whilst he was in office much good work was done. It is not generally realised how much we owe to him, or how disastrous our plight, during the subsequent Napoleonic wars, might have been but for him. The whole military machine was allowed to fall into decay under Lord Hill and the Duke of Wellington, who, though—unlike the Duke of York—an abnormally great commander in the field, was a failure as Commander-in-Chief. It is true that Lord Hardinge, his successor, did much to remedy matters and did succeed in modifying to a large extent the miserable shortcomings which the Crimean War disclosed. But it really remained for the Duke of Cambridge to restore comparative order. This was not because he was an abler man than Lord Hardinge, but because the post demands a man entirely removed from cliques, parties and social influence; and as such a Royal Prince must be in a much stronger position than any ordinary soldier. Under such a chief the system of selection is much fairer; and the real interests of the Army are more authoritatively put forward. Moreover a personal head of affairs suits this country. So it is with the Crown, and so it is with the Army. What loyalty or sentiment can an Army Council inspire? True, under Mr. Cardwell the Duke's powers were in theory curtailed. But the outcome of these measures did not really take effect until after his retirement. Then followed two very distinguished soldiers by profession. From different causes both were comparative failures. One had too much brains and too little power, and the other's case was not exactly parallel. Then came the change. Should it again become advisable to return to the old system, this should be done with as little change as possible, since above all things at present the Army

requires rest after the numerous upheavals to which it has been subjected in recent years. Were the Commandership-in-Chief restored, the present distribution of work could continue with the substitution of a Commander-in-Chief for an Inspector-General. The business departments, as under the Orders in Council of 1895 and 1901, might be immediately responsible to the Secretary of State, and only under the supervision of the military chief. The Army Council might still exist as a consultative body like the old War Office Council, whilst military orders could be issued in the name of the Commander-in-Chief. Should this occur within the next few years, who should be appointed? The names of Lord Kitchener and Sir John French would naturally occur to many. But bigger men than they—Wellington, Wolseley, Roberts and others—have already failed, and we are inevitably led by past experience to maintain that the Commander-in-Chief should be a Royal Prince; and at present at any rate we are fortunate in possessing a man with the requisite qualifications.

### THE CITY.

NO Chancellor of the Exchequer has had a finer opportunity for currying favour with the City than Mr. Asquith, and he has neglected to avail himself of the chance. No consolation is derived from the surplus shown in the year's revenue, and the Stock Exchange is indisposed to shake off the apathy which has been the prevailing feature for so many months past. The general public, however, are gradually awakening to the possibilities of investment, and while speculation in the "House" remains dead there is an increasing demand for the higher-interest-yielding securities. Issuing houses are not unobservant of this fact, and continue to tempt the public with new investments. And with more success than was obtained a week or ten days ago. Thus a Chinese railway loan which was offered towards the end of last week has been promptly subscribed for, and an interesting feature in connexion with the issue has been the receipt of applications from China. One financial critic has seen in these particular applications a desire to give a fictitious success to the issue; but as the loan was over-subscribed in London, this carping at Chinese finance is unworthy. The fate of a Greek loan has yet to be determined. Montreal will now test the investing public, who also have an opportunity of subscribing for an issue of Four-per-Cent. Debenture Stock of the Buenos Ayres and Pacific Railway. This company is a persistent borrower, but it has a big programme of extensions to carry through; and as it offers attractive terms, the public will probably be willing to provide the required funds. Sooner or later the London County Council will be a borrower, and will not ask in vain. The fate of the pending Peruvian Loan must cause anxiety to the directors of the Corporation. Messrs. Speyer Brothers have withdrawn from the issue, which will now be offered direct. Counsel has advised that the interests of the present debenture-holders must not be jeopardised, so instead of creating a Prior Lien Bond, as was originally intended, an addition will be made to the existing debenture issue. Other large loans are in course of arrangement, a big issue of Prussian and German Rentes being contemplated almost immediately. This issue will, of course, be made in Germany, but facilities will be offered British investors desirous of participating, and many will, no doubt, avail themselves of the opportunity. A four per cent. security having the guarantee of the German Empire is well worth attention from those who believe in the geographical distribution of their capital.

The financial difficulties of the Erie Company remind us of the precarious nature of American railway investments. It is believed that a receivership will be avoided, but the financial arrangements proposed will increase prior charges, and put the junior securities still further into the background. That the country is recovering from the recent financial débâcle is undisputed, but it is doing so at the expense of the future, and those who hold American securities or contemplate acquiring them must be prepared for two or three lean



years. Nor is there anything very encouraging in the immediate prospects of Canadian railways. Much more hopeful is the outlook for Home Railway stocks, with the economies that are being effected in working. It is understood that despite the refusal of the Board of Trade to sanction the alliance of the Great Central and Great Northern, the companies are carrying out many of the provisions of the scheme, and that these will result in large savings in the next few months. Meantime a Parliamentary Bill is being prepared, and its passage should be assured.

As we anticipated, the shareholders of the Chartered Company have responded to the peremptory demands of the directors, and sufficient money has been subscribed to admit of the allotment of debenture stock. Failure spelt ruin for the shareholders, and however unwilling they may have been to put their hands in their pockets, they had no alternative if they wished to preserve their interests intact. For the sake of the unfortunates we hope that this will be the last appeal, but there will never be any real confidence in the undertaking until the Board has been strengthened.

### INSURANCE.—THE OCEAN ACCIDENT CORPORATION.

INSURANCE is practically based upon an experience of the past; for life assurance mortality records provide trustworthy guidance for the future, but in other branches of the business the available experience is much less definite and adequate. The proper conduct of insurance against sickness, accidents, workmen's compensation, and numerous other casualties commonly described under the title of accident insurance, requires not merely as much statistical information as the past will provide, but a shrewd judgment in regard to contingencies for which previous records are unavailable. There is, perhaps, no one insurance company in the management of which an intelligent anticipation of the future is more frequently required than in the Ocean Accident and Guarantee Corporation. The recently issued report deals with the year during which the Workmen's Compensation Act 1906 came into force. That Act rendered employers liable to compensate employees to a much wider extent than formerly, and the greatest care was necessary in determining the rates of premium to be charged, and the risks to be accepted or declined. The Ocean, founded in 1871, and transacting by far the largest business of the kind, was especially well equipped for undertaking a task that was subject to many doubts and exhibited many unknown features. Not the least of the difficulties was the meaning of the various provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act: the chief interest of this Act in the minds of the general population concerned the liabilities of employers to domestic servants, a kind of insurance which, while not previously necessary from the point of view of legal responsibility, had been transacted in considerable volume by the Ocean for many years. This Corporation was, if we remember rightly, the first to incorporate in such policies provisions in excess of legal liabilities of the kind which many masters and mistresses had long insured for in the Ocean, and which are undoubtedly beneficial to both employers and servants.

Since the Act came into force, on the 1st of last July, the Ocean has dealt with more than three thousand cases of domestic servants' policies, of which thirteen proved fatal. Among the claims was one from a domestic servant who swallowed her false teeth while eating, another from a manageress who poisoned her hands while constantly handling copper coins; and others from sleep-walking, burns, blood-poisoning, and many other unexpected causes, which few people would be likely to regard as involving them in any serious liability.

This domestic servant business, while looming large in the eyes of the public, is a relatively small matter for the insurance companies, some of whom are disposed to regard it as being more bother than it is worth. The general employers' liability business of the Ocean, together with sickness, accident, and a multiplicity of other risks, resulted in the receipt of premiums to the

amount of £1,435,230. After making provision for liability on unexpired risks there remained a balance of £258,000, which enabled the Corporation to make a total distribution to the shareholders at the very excellent rate of 25 per cent.

In addition to all the work involved in the wise handling of compensation business under the new Act, the Ocean has started a fire insurance department; this was made necessary by the incursion of practically all the fire offices into accident business. The extent of the fire business is not revealed in the accounts, and is probably not very large at present. All foreign business has been refused up till now, and great care has been exercised in the acceptance of risks at home. This, of course, is the only method of building up a profitable business, which will doubtless increase the dividends to shareholders in future years. The Ocean, like nearly all other insurance companies, had to face the question of the low value of securities at the end of the year. This has been done, not by writing down the book-values of depreciated securities, but by making provision amply sufficient to cover any possible loss that the Company's investments may disclose. The nature of these securities is set out in detail in a list accompanying the report—an example that many other offices might follow with advantage.

### INFERENCES AT BRIDGE.—IV.

WE now come to inferences to be drawn from the way in which the dealer elects to play his cards after the dummy hand is exposed. Here again, and still more strongly, it is not so much from what he does as from what he does not do that valuable inferences may often be drawn.

In a No Trump game, when there is a long, unestablished suit of five or six cards in dummy, and the dealer does not at once go for that suit, it becomes a certainty that he has not got the requisite cards to establish it and to bring it in. The most common form in which this presents itself is when the dummy puts down five or more cards of a suit headed by queen, knave, or possibly even by queen, knave, 10. If the dealer, directly he gets in, does not go for this suit, the inference should be obvious to the meanest understanding—he has neither the ace nor the king in his own hand, as in both cases the suit could be established at once, therefore either of the opponents who holds one of the two high cards can safely place the other one in his partner's hand. Quite recently I lost a big rubber which we could easily have won, entirely through my partner failing to draw this particular inference when it was very obvious.

The score was one game all and eighteen to twelve against us. The dealer left it, and dummy declared No Trumps on the following hand:—

Hearts—Ace, queen  
Diamonds—Queen, 10, 5  
Clubs—Ace, 10, 4  
Spades—Queen, knave, 9, 6, 2

It was my lead, and I led the knave of hearts. The first five tricks were:

TRICK 1.

H, Queen

H, Knave

A	B
Y*	
Z	

H, 4

A B, 0; Y Z, 1.

TRICK 2.

C, Ace

C, 3

A	B
Y*	
Z	

C, 2

A B, 0; Y Z, 2.

\* Dummy.

TRICK 3.

C, 10

C, Knave

A	B
Y*	
Z	

C, 4

A B, 1; Y Z, 2.

TRICK 4.

H, Ace

H, 2

A	B
Y*	
Z	

H, 9

A B, 1; Y Z, 3.

TRICK 5.

C, 4

S, 4

A	B
Y*	
Z	

C, 7

A B, 2; Y Z, 3

\* Dummy.

My partner then had to lead. His hand originally was:

Hearts—9, 3  
Diamonds—King, 9, 7, 6, 3  
Clubs—King, 8, 5  
Spades—King, 10, 3

He was left with his five diamonds and three spades, and the question was how to put me in to make the winning hearts, which were clearly marked in my hand. After studying the position carefully, he led a small diamond. The dealer, who held the ace, passed it up; the queen won, and he then put himself in with the ace of diamonds, made his two long clubs, and won the game. Having lost the game and rubber, my partner said that it was very unlucky, but that he thought the best chance of putting me in was that I should have the ace of diamonds, especially as I had discarded a spade. It happened that I had only one diamond, the knave, which would have been a very bad discard; and, apart from any question of the discard, was it conceivable that the dealer could have had that ace of spades? He, the dealer, was a very good player, and if he had held the ace of spades he would have had a certainty of winning the odd trick by attacking at once in the spade suit; but he had not done so. He had carefully kept off that suit—as a matter of fact he had only the 5—and the ace of spades was as plainly marked in my hand, to anyone with an ordinary power of drawing deductions, as if it had been exposed on the table. After the third trick I had marked the king of spades in my partner's hand, and he ought, with equal certainty, to have marked the ace in my hand. You must credit your opponent with some modicum of ordinary intelligence, and when he does not adopt the obvious course to win the game, it is quite safe to conclude that he has not got the requisite card or cards. This is just ordinary deduction. It may sometimes be wrong. The dealer may occasionally lay a trap for you, but depend upon it that, if he can see a chance of winning the game by plain, straightforward methods, he will do so, and when he does not adopt those plain methods, it is because he has not got the wherewithal.

When the dealer does not go for a long suit which you see exposed in his dummy, it is either because he has a better suit in his own hand, or because he cannot see his way to establish and bring in dummy's suit. In nine cases out of ten the dealer in a No Trump game will attack at once in the suit of which he has the greatest number in his two hands combined. If you are very weak in one suit, say you have only one or two small ones, and the dealer does not attack in that suit, you can with safety credit your partner with strength in it, and you can sometimes help him very much by leading it for him. The following hand was a striking instance of this. No Trumps was declared by the dummy, who put down:

Hearts—Ace, 9, 3  
Diamonds—King, 10, 4  
Clubs—King, Queen, 7, 2  
Spades—King, knave, 4

The eldest hand led the 5 of hearts, holding

Hearts—King, knave, 7, 5, 4, 2  
Diamonds—8, 7, 4  
Clubs—Ace, 8, 3  
Spades—7

His partner played the 10 of hearts, which the dealer won with the queen. The dealer then led the knave of clubs, and the eldest hand won it with his ace. Now, surely, the dealer's play ought to have conveyed some useful information to an intelligent adversary. There were nine spades divided between the third player and the dealer, and the king and knave were on the table. If the dealer had five spades with an honour of any kind, would he not have gone for that suit at once? But he had not done so, and therefore the third player was marked with at least five spades, and a lead through the king, knave must have been an advantage to him—as a matter of fact he had six headed by ace, queen, and the ace of diamonds to bring them in with. Do you think that he got that lead of a spade which he was praying for? Not a chance. The eldest hand went solidly on with his own suit of hearts, and the result was that he and his partner made nothing but their three aces and the queen of spades, losing three by cards, instead of winning the odd trick, as they must have done if the eldest hand had had the faculty of drawing an ordinary plain inference. His excuse was that he hoped his partner might have two hearts left, so

that he would be able to bring in all the long hearts, but here was another inference missed. There were only two hearts not accounted for, the 8 and another, and his partner could not have the 8, as he had played the 10 on the first round with the 9 exposed in dummy, therefore he could not have more than one spade left. Here you see that even a comparatively unimportant card such as a 10 instead of an 8 may have an important signification, in fact, almost every card that is played conveys its message to the player who has the faculty of reading it correctly, and successful bridge is largely governed by and based upon these messages, and upon the inferences which skilful players draw from them.

W. DALTON.

(To be continued.)

## BEFORE THE RACE.

MANY who have never handled an oar in a race imagine probably that rowing is a pleasant pastime. Even a crew at top pressure in a punishing contest may, if it keeps its form, appear to the uninitiated as engaged in an agreeable exercise. Nothing is further from the truth. There are moments in the life of every oarsman when he wonders what insanity ever induced him to row, and others again when he is too far gone even to wonder and feels like Tantalus in his Inferno longing for a relief too narrowly denied him. As far as he is capable of reasoning at all at such a time he is tempted to resolve that never again will he be betrayed into such a senseless situation. But habit has him in its grip—for motive with him has assumed the power of habit—and on he toils, forcing exhausted limbs to continued effort, and struggling for breath, till at last the race is over and he may rest till wind and strength return to him. If he is properly fit, he will feel in a comparatively few minutes as if nothing had happened. Then, as a man who has recovered from tooth-ache wonders what tooth-ache is like, and why he should even have thought of going to the dentist, he forgets forthwith the baleful past and lives in a highly agreeable present—that is, of course, if victory has been his portion: if he has suffered defeat he is in unhappy case. But, whether he has won or lost, it is not till another training has begun, and he is engaged in the wearisome toil of preparation for another race, that the philosophical mood again assails him. If it is the Oxford and Cambridge Race that he is preparing for, the assault will be a keen one, for apart from the rigours of training, the physical distress which the oarsman suffers in long practice courses is almost as severe as that which awaits him in the race itself. Why, asks the voice of Reason, for the sake of what is after all only a sport, should he live this round of laborious days, and incur continually such ridiculous discomforts? Frequently he determines, quite seriously, that he will not endure another 'Varsity training, but this resolution, if he has the chance, he inevitably breaks.

For some ten or twelve weeks past the sixteen oarsmen at Putney, to whom this is one of the most momentous days of their lives, have devoted mind and body almost continuously to preparation for this afternoon's contest. At last the fateful morning dawns, and the end of all their labours is at hand. I have been asked to describe what one feels in the last few hours before the race. Of course one's own feelings in given circumstances are no sure criterion of anyone's else, but probably before an event of this kind there is a strong similarity between different men's sensations. It is true that one may be of a nervous and his fellow of a phlegmatic temperament, but I do not believe that either on such an occasion escapes what is known as the needle, though the sharpness of that implement may vary in degree. Often, I am sure, the difference between the feelings of one and another is more apparent than real. The man with a reputation for phlegm conceals his nervousness better than his neighbour, but I fancy his inward sense of discomfort is none the less harassing. At any rate the nervous man, though he sits with shaking knees at the start, rarely makes a mistake in oarsmanship. From the first stroke he is himself



again and sets to work with as much precision as in a practice course. I have known nervousness show itself in many different ways, but in none so curiously as in the case of a certain eminent Oxford stroke. I doubt if any man ever rowed in that position with more perfect judgment, that is to say, with a keener instinct of how much he could get out of his crew and how best to get it—in short, with better "head". Yet before the race he was the most headless man ashore. From the time when he got up in the morning to the moment of embarking he would talk unceasing gibberish, beginning each new sentence before he had finished the last. Such remarks as were intelligible seemed devoid of meaning. On one occasion, when his crew had returned from a short preliminary spin, he informed an enquiring spectator that they had rowed a minute in fifty seconds; on another he hailed a rainy day with delight on the plea that if the water was wet the boat would slip through it the faster. This will convey the condition of his mind on a race day, yet at ordinary times he talked as sanely as other people, and in the race itself there was never a stroke less flurried or safer.

But let us suppose that you are about to take part in the Boat Race. I should describe the experience somewhat as follows. You have slept soundly—a dreamless sleep, as a fit man should—but when you wake consciousness breaks in on you with a vague sense of dread, or hardly dread perhaps so much as a feeling that something very important is about to happen. It is not such a miserable condition of mind as one might expect, for the hour of deliverance is at hand, and the disagreeable present will shortly by the power of retrospect be changed into an interesting and almost agreeable past. When you have breakfasted and settled down as to the routine of any common day there comes a sense of surprise that you can feel so very ordinary. An event of stupendous importance—since nothing else in life for the time being matters—is about to happen, yet your pulse does not quicken and the world goes on much as usual; the event in fact is so important that you can hardly realise its imminence. Still its approach is dimly felt and you wish you had something definite to do to fill your mind and the hours that are left. Instead you sit down or walk about, vaguely restless, and cannot think for two consecutive minutes of anything but the chance in front of you, your mind wandering tediously over old ground traversed too often before. "That bridge-to-bridge trial when they did the course"—you think—"that clearly shows we have something in hand. Besides 3 in their boat is obviously a passenger, and as for 6, he'll chuck it if they're pressed". A rigorous optimism is the order of the day. Your coach pretends to you that you're bound to win: you pretend to yourself that you cannot be beaten. Yet you never get rid of that sense of uncertainty whose existence you will not admit. The morning wears on. You idle down to the boat-house, you gaze uneasily at the river, wondering how good a tide it will be, and what the water will be like in "Corney". You have your "prelim" (a short trial spin). If the crew goes well the coach is delighted; if it goes badly he tells you it is the best possible sign, assuring you that too good a "prelim" means bad rowing in the race. As the time for the start draws near "old blues" begin to appear on the scene. One and all they seem to have made up their minds (it is part of the prescribed policy) that you are certain to win. In this crowded hour you and all old University oarsmen present suffer from an acute form of monomania. To the good Oxford man Cambridge is the Devil. To the Cambridge eye Oxford, no doubt, appears equally satanic. That "the Devil", as represented by the opposing crew, "hath power to assume a pleasing shape" only intensifies his devilishness: your artistic appreciation of good oarsmanship is reserved for a calmer season. At last the boat is launched and you paddle down to your stake-boat. Then the worst, as far as preliminaries are concerned, is over. The actual start of the Boat Race is less nervous work than the start of a bumping-race at Oxford or Cambridge, or even of a race at Henley; partly because there is so far to go that the start matters less, and partly because the feeling is strong upon you that every minute is an approach to an escape,

not only from mere training rules, but from the tyranny of a long period of mental and physical tension.

Of the race itself I will merely say that, if it is a close one, or in any case if you are in the losing crew, your physical sensations at some point or other may not unfairly be likened to the fiery pains in store for the wicked. But in your truly infernal discomfort you never quite lose sight of the possible Heaven of victory, or even of the more material Paradise of rest and refreshment that is most certainly in store for you. I have often heard a thirsty man about to drink set a high value on his thirst. I fancy that the oarsman near the finish of the Boat Race, with the issue still in the balance, would even at the height of his distress set no mean price upon his feelings: partly perhaps for the sake of the physical satisfaction awaiting him, but chiefly for a better reason. That reason, which I will not try here to explain, is the secret of the joy of rowing.

REGINALD P. P. ROWE.

### "JACK STRAW."

ONE sunny afternoon, when the twentieth century was younger than it is now, a novelist and a dramatic critic might have been observed pacing up and down a lawn, in deep conversation. It was of the drama that they were talking. The novelist had not long ago written a play, which had been produced by some society and so much admired that some manager had presently put it into the evening bill. There the critics had admired it as much as ever, repeating their praises of its truthfulness, its humanity, and all that. The public, however, had not taken the advice to go and see it. It was, indeed, a play foredoomed by the melancholy grimness of its subject. The author had extenuated nothing. There was no gilding of the pill; and the pill, accordingly, was not swallowed. Disappointed, but unbowed, the author was now declaring to the critic his resolution to write more plays. The critic, who had always admired greatly the author's novels, urged him to leave the theatre alone. He pointed out that, good as the play had been, it had not been so good as the novels. Drama, he insisted, was a damnable business, at best. The outlines had to be so arbitrary, the colours so thickly laid on. The most subtle of characters on the stage was far more obvious than the simplest and most straightforward of one's fellow creatures. In writing a novel, one did not have to make these wholesale surrenders. One could be as subtle as life itself, said the critic. And, since the talent of the novelist to whom he was talking "like a father" was essentially a subtle talent, the less traffic it had with the theatre the better it would thrive. The theatre could gain little by it, whereas, insidiously, the theatre would mar it for its proper use. Commercially, of course, the theatre was a tempting thing. There were pots of money to be made out of the theatre, by some people. "But," said the critic, pausing in his walk and tapping the novelist on the breast, rather impressively, "you, my boy, are not one of those people." The novelist seemed to acquiesce, not without a certain gloom. And the critic, sorry for him, yet conscious of having done a good afternoon's work, briskly changed the subject.

I will not give the name of either the novelist or the critic. Enough that the scene recurred to me, and made me smile not a little, several times in the course of the performance of "Jack Straw" at the Vaudeville Theatre. It is seldom that the public and the critics are found at unison about a play. "Jack Straw" is one of the rare instances. The public acclaims it as loudly as it has been acclaimed by the public's guides. Personally, I cannot be quite so enthusiastic as my colleagues. "Jack Straw" does not seem to me so good an example of Mr. Somerset Maugham's talent as was "Lady Frederick" (which was produced when I was away, and of which it is too late to write now). It is altogether on a lower level—the level of farce; and there is little of sheer invention in the farcical figures and situations. The Parker-Jennings family is one which we have seen—on the stage—more times than we could count. In real life they

would, of course, be quite new to us. A humble family, resident in Brixton, suddenly inheriting two millions of money, and thereby launched into the great world, would become the more humble in its new environment. It would certainly not assume blatant airs. It would provide a case for sympathy, not for ridicule. By immemorial tradition of the stage, however, nouveaux riches are always blatant, always ridiculous; and Mr. Somerset Maugham lays the colours on with a trowel. As Mrs. Parker-Jennings, Miss Lottie Venne, in whom are no fine shades, and in whom is an incomparable command of the primary colours of farce, has the best part she has had for years. I need hardly say that Miss Parker-Jennings is very different from the rest of her family. Tradition demands a serious "love interest" in even the wildest farces; and the public will not take seriously the heart of a maiden who is not wholly refined. In "A Man of Honour" Mr. Maugham displayed to the public the golden heart of a barmaid. The public would none of it. Even were people tolerant of tragedy in modern life, "A Man of Honour" would have failed because the heroine was not a lady. Miss Parker-Jennings (like so many other daughters of nouveaux riches on the stage) leaves nothing to be desired in the matter of lady-likeness. Otherwise, how could the play be rounded off by her betrothal to the hero? Mr. Hawtrey, as that hero, has a part that skilfully gives him all his usual chances, with a few new ones thrown in. The effect of him in an auburn and bifurcated beard is in itself so startling as to ensure the success of the first act. And at the end of the second act, before making a silent exit, he has occasion to turn and wink at the other persons of the play. Some twelve years ago, the United States of America were profoundly stirred by "the Cissie Fitzgerald wink". I shall not be surprised if the Hawtrey wink creates an equally deep impression here. In its slowness, its solemnity, its richness, it is as memorable as it is indescribable, and can be likened only to an eclipse of the sun. To deceive is (I need hardly say) the hero's business throughout the play; but the character is differentiated from the regular "Hawtrey part" by the fact that it is a deception within a deception. Jack Straw, a waiter in the Grand Babylon Hotel, is palmed off by Lady Wanley on the Parker-Jenningses as an Archduke of Pomerania, in order that she may avenge a slight. But an Archduke of Pomerania he actually is. And hereby Mr. Maugham avoids what would otherwise be a distinctly jarring note in the farce. It was all very well for Congreve, Molière, and other playwrights of the past, to show a lacquey palmed off as a great gentleman on pretentious persons. That, according to the standards of the time, was a quite legitimate joke; and we, switching ourselves back into that time, are not offended by it. But we should flinch from it in a contemporary play. We are too tender for such barbarities. We should be pitying the victims of the joke, and condemning the player of it. Lady Wanley, indeed, does not know that the waiter is what she pretends him to be; but our own knowledge is enough to soothe us, to keep us in the mood of laughter. Mr. Maugham keeps us laughing loudly throughout his play. Such as it is, the thing could not have been better done. But it is far from being the best kind of thing that Mr. Maugham can do.

MAX BEERBOHM.

#### THE OPPORTUNITY OF ENGLISH MUSIC.

THE courteous letter of Mr. Caulfield, entitled "Greatness and Environment," in the last number of the SATURDAY REVIEW demands an answer, and happens to give me just the opening which I wanted for the article I was preparing for the present week. It does not need even the tremendous authority of Blake to convince me of the truth of the saying of his which I quoted: "Ages are all equal, but genius is always above the age." So when I am told that a great artist, or rather (why "rather", which begs the question?) a man with great artistic instincts, "is born in a mean age, he is as one beating the air", I turn naturally to Blake, who certainly produced great art in

what might fairly be christened "a mean age", though that is not quite how I would define the eighteenth century. It was not indeed a great age in poetry, and here we have a great poet starting up suddenly out of it. To say of a great artist that "his environment must give him more than it can receive from him" is sufficiently contradicted by the one instance I found most ready to my hand. In that very century, and confining ourselves to "a man with great artistic instincts," it cannot be said that Pope, to whatever environments he may have owed his form, can have depended on anything but his own instincts for whatever serious talent he possessed. Let us take the great leap and imagine Shakespeare getting more out of the quite promising environment of the days of Elizabeth than he, who was born for all ages, gave to his own. No, it is the great man who uses his age for his own purpose, not the age that influences the great man. To be made by one's surroundings is at once to be written down an inferior, uncreative mind.

Now why is Mr. Caulfield so certain that "there will not be any great art in America—at present"? It would be hard to say that America has not produced any great work, when we remember Whitman, Thoreau, Poe, all imperfect in their different ways, all with their environments very much against them, but all revolting, to good purpose, against those environments and doing vital things in spite of them. Why then, to return to the question of music, which is the one I am at present concerned with, should there not appear suddenly, in America or in England, a new composer who has new and great things to say? Was Beethoven or Mozart or Wagner expected by his age? had the essential part of him anything to do with his predecessors or contemporaries? The main part of their genius lay in their putting aside all such influences, in getting through them and beyond them if that process was, as it often is, a necessary one. A man with "great artistic instincts" may at this moment exist in our midst here in London, or in America, in New York; the one is not more likely or unlikely than the other. And to lead to the real subject of this article, it is for just such reasons that I am glad to welcome the formation of a new musical society to be called the Musical League, which has been founded with the object of "fostering the cause of music in England, and of promoting the development of musical life and culture". Let me repeat, from the precise and excellent prospectus which has been sent out, the main intentions of the league. There is to be an annual festival of two or three days, at which the works performed shall consist partly of new compositions, both English and foreign, partly of older works of musical interest which, under present conditions, cannot be heard as frequently as their merits entitle them to be. One festival will be held each year in a different town. The general interests of musicians will be looked after. A committee is already in action, and a better one could not easily be imagined for its purpose. The names of Elgar, Delius, Percy Pitt, Henry J. Wood, will be approved by every musician, and the presence of a well-known Welsh choral conductor, an examiner of the Society of Arts, and the Principal of the Royal College of Music in Manchester, will add considerably to the efficiency of the committee. This committee, I am sorry to see, is making the usual protest of impartiality by "a clause in the constitution which debars any member of the committee from having a composition of his own performed at the festivals of the Musical League". That is one of those restrictions which shows painfully the limits within which the English mind places itself. What hypocrisy of humility to pretend, as not only this committee, but other committees, those of painters, are pretending, that they would bring suspicion on themselves by choosing for performance a work composed by one or other of the members of them! Here, the prospects of hearing good music are at once seriously limited, as one looks down the list of names on the committee. Why prohibit their own music, because they have to give opinion on the music of others?

The music, then, of Elgar, Delius, Mackenzie, Bantock, Pitt, and O'Neill is not to be given at the



festivals: where shall we find as good a list of those whose music is to be given? The hope, no doubt, is in the new man, whose name one does not even know; has the league any prescience of such a man, with whom to begin its series of festivals? That remains to be seen, and possibilities of this sort are the best excuse for the formation of this Musical League. There are others, and one is that foreign as well as English music is to be given, and older less-known music as well as new. I am glad to have anticipated, in my last article, that readiness to accept, at least to give its trial, to new things in music, English or foreign, which is a good national quality, especially evident at the present day. We may look forward, therefore, to hearing at these festivals some of the new or recent foreign music which still remains for us to hear. And the most instructive as well as the most delightful and satisfying part of them may well be in the presentation of some of the fine, scarcely known things of the past. Why should we not hear some Monteverde, at "an annual festival of the utmost attainable perfection in a town where conditions are favourable"? Manchester is to be the first town chosen, and Richter the first conductor. In him, at least, we shall find the utmost attainable perfection, and his stronghold has always been Manchester.

"The Musical League", we are told, "can only be established on a broad basis by the hearty co-operation of all who are interested in the art, whether as composers, executive artists, teachers, or amateurs." The appeal is wide, and should be widely supported. Up to the present the festivals given in towns in the country have been largely concerned with what is called "classical" music, or with the compositions of older living English composers. Here is a new aim, which, it appears, has been successfully carried out in Germany by the Tonkünstler-Verein, "which has done so much to foster an interest in the art throughout Germany by raising the standard of musical culture in provincial towns, by the encouragement of local enterprise, and by affording musicians invaluable opportunities for social intercourse". The large towns in our provinces have never yet been manipulated or even recognised; they exist to-day, separate centres, which could be indefinitely extended. Think of the separate artistic life in Berlin, Leipzig, Dresden, Munich, each a rival of the other, each with its own personal life and aims, each indeed with its separate taste and standard of judgment. Why should not Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Newcastle, already so prepared and with so much knowledge and enthusiasm in their midst, take some hints from the chief musical nation in Europe, where music is a part of the national life? It is to such helpers and to a public so likely to be appreciative that the Musical League is now making its appeal.

If we turn from the provinces, and this league, to London, we shall find many allies. Mr. Beecham has already done much for English music; it is to him that we owe especially our knowledge of Delius. Now a new choir, Edward Mason's Choir, assisted by Mr. Beecham's orchestra, has announced, for April, a programme consisting "entirely of works by British composers". It has been formed, we are told, with the object of producing principally new works by the younger composers, and asks for subscriptions. The first programme is well chosen, and in an individual way.

Mr. Plunket Greene is singing English and Irish songs at the Æolian Hall. Mr. Joseph Holbrooke is in his sixth year of English Chamber Concerts, at which he has produced thirty-five new compositions by English composers. When have we, in London, shown so much interest in our own music? When have musicians joined so readily to help and encourage one another? When have the members of an orchestra shown the independence, pluck, and enthusiasm which have made it possible for the London Symphony Orchestra to exist and become the finest in London? Everywhere there seems to be a movement, an unusual impulse, a spontaneous desire to come together and work in sympathy. Here are environments preparing themselves: where is the artist ready to give to them more than they can possibly give to him?

ARTHUR SYMONS.

#### A CAVALIER POET.

IN the unrestful times of the King and Commons Wars the Muses, who were perhaps occupied in avoiding the sword-points, found in England little room for song, and yet from those years in which Milton himself was silent have come to us two English lyrics that will always hold a place apart in the treasury of our language. The author of "Althea" and "Going to the Warres" has not failed of due recognition in respect of these his first two masterpieces, but upon the rest of his work and upon the tragic story of the man's own life has fallen an oblivion which it will not be labour lost to pierce.

Richard Lovelace was a Charterhouse boy, and went at sixteen to Oxford, where, says Anthony Wood, "he was accounted the most amiable and beautiful person that eye ever beheld". He was created M.A. in his second year by special act of the Chancellor, an achievement not more startling than the royal progress which a large fortune and these extraordinary personal charms secured for him through all the brilliant years of his prosperity. Brilliant they were, but few. For two years he took active part in the Civil War and gave his fortune and the strength of his sword-arm to the cause he loved—the cause which was fated not to prevail. In 1642 he was chosen by his county to present the famous Kentish petition to Parliament. He was imprisoned, and, when liberated on parole, spent what remained of his fortune in arming his brothers for the King's cause. When it was all gone he tried to win another in the French King's service against Spain. On a false report of his death the lady he loved accepted another husband. He returned to England too late and still penniless, only to be once more imprisoned. After Charles' death he was again set free, a broken man. He had lost everything dear to him, his master and the cause, his lady and his friends. He became "very poor in Body and Perse, was the Object of Charity, went in ragged Cloaths (whereas when he was in his Glory he wore Cloth of Gold and Silver)", and at last in a Shoe Lane garret followed the friend and master who had died at Whitehall.

The lights and shadows of such a life are too intense not to be reflected in his poetry. That too is sometimes in its "Glory" and sometimes goes in "ragged Cloaths". To account for his failures various theories have been held. The influence of the amazing Donne and his "Fantastics", the incredible artificiality of contemporary Court life, the distractions of war and pleasure, these have been suggested, and shallow criticism of course has said that he was a hasty poetaster who dashed off ill-considered and unpolished verses in the intervals of soldiering and Kentish politics. But the problem is a deeper one. Lovelace was above all a child of brightness and gaiety; in a worldly but still in a high sense he was an apostle of joy. In exultation he wrote because he must, because the inspiration of joy was upon him, and under that inspiration he created what has won him the admiration of all time. In depression he wrote because he would; and oppressed with failure, sorrowing for the loved and losing cause, he saw in the world a need greater than ever before for something gay and brilliant, something with a laugh or a smile imprinted upon it, and he would struggle to send out some bright thing into the darkness. It was then that his verse was strained and hard and lifeless, the product of unnatural effort, without spontaneity and without inspiration. Then Lovelace the poet was not; his place was taken by a desperate fellow who cudgelled an unwilling Muse and forced her into song. She yielded to his force, and yielding betrayed him. Constrained to sing she gave him song than which silence had been more musical.

"In troth I do myself perswade  
That the wilde Boy is growne a Man;  
And all his childishness off laid  
E'er since Lucasta did his Fires fan.  
H'has left his apish Jigs  
And Whipping Hearts like Gigs;  
For t'other day I heard him swear  
That Beauty should be crown'd in Honour's Chair."

What an ill-assorted company of vagabond lines! How badly they march together! There is no coherence, no interdependence of the various cadences; it is formless, a dead stanza.

But Lovelace was not always fighting his losing battle, and more often we find him the laughing, loving, gay-hearted Cavalier that he was born to be. He was possessed of a very bright and charming mind, full of quaint little careless fancies such as children have. He had something too of a child's simple contemplative outlook upon the world, seeing much in little things, easily attracted and easily amused. Such trifles as the snail and its shell delighted him in certain moods. He regarded that compendious creature as a witticism of Nature and liked to think himself puzzled by its paradoxes. To "The Snayl" he addresses two poems, and chaffs him therein with great relish as a "Deep riddle of mysterious state", and finally speaks of him thus:

"Behold this huddle doth appear  
Of horses, coach and charioteer;  
That moveth him by traverse law  
And doth himself both drive and draw  
Then when the Sunn the South doth winne  
He baits him hot in his own Inne."

With much more of the same sort, and last of all:

" . . . . . wheresoever he doth go  
He wanders with his Country too."

He wrote also to "The Ante" in the same strain, and was at all times greatly exercised in his mind by the

"Salamander that in Heat  
And flames doth cool his monstrous Sweat;  
Whose fanne a glowing cake".

But when most playful he could still be serious:

"Coward Fate degenerate Men  
Like little children uses when  
He whips us first until we weepe  
Then 'cause we still a weeping keepe."

Even the work of the determined fellow with his overdriven Muse is worth searching for occasional gems. For sometimes the real Lovelace will begin a poem whose completion is left to the cudgel-bearer, or he will appear suddenly in unexpected places to brighten with five immortal lines some infinitely weary "Pastorall". A very inferior ode to "Lucasta at the Bath" (where surely she was better left unsung) begins with this beautiful couplet:

"In the Autumn of a Summer's Day  
When all the Winds had leave to play",

and the poet's address to "Night" is introduced also by lines happy in fancy and possessed of a certain strength and nobility of thought which appear in all his best work.

"Night, loathed jaylor of the locked up Sunn,  
And tyrant-turnkey on committed Day,  
Bright eyes lie fettered in thy Dungeon  
And Heav'n itself doth thy dark wards obey!"

In "Amynta's Grove" occurs this delightful tribute to some Watteau-like damsel totally unworthy of it:

"Her lips like coral gates kept in  
The perfume and the pearl within",

and "Aramantha", in the course of four hundred cudgel-born lines of which she is the uninspiring subject, receives a very pretty welcome at one point in her wanderings:

"Out of the Yeomanry o' th' heard  
With grave aspect and feet prepared  
A rev'rend Lady Cow draws neare,  
Bids Aramantha welcome here;  
And from her privy purse lets fall  
A Pearle or two that seeme to call  
This adorned adoréd Fayry  
To the banquet of her Dayry."

A strange invitation, but a pretty welcome none the less.

It is for such things as this that a reader may search Lovelace's work, both good and bad. In them he is charming and does not deserve oblivion, but there is

that in him which raises him above the level of a charming lyrist, sets him at times above the brilliancy of Donne, the gaiety or pathos of Carew and Suckling, above even the exquisite fancy and lyrical perfection of Herrick. For there is a spirit of nobleness in Lovelace which these all lack, the simple spirit of a strong man for whom it was enough to "fear God and honour the King"; who thought no shame to enjoy in their service the pleasures of riches and love and song, nor feared, if need were, to suffer for their sake poverty and pain and hardship.

"See what a clouded Majesty! and eyes  
Whose glory through their mist doth brighter rise!  
See! what an humble bravery doth shine,  
And grief triumphant breaking through each line  
How it commands the face! so sweet a scorne  
Never did happy misery adorne!"

There speaks a greater than Lucasta's lover, a man capable of higher thoughts and deeper affections than clever Court poets are wont to have. But this side of Lovelace is seen consummated in that most perfect expression of its spirit that Chivalry has known, the Song of the Lover riding out "to the Warres".

"Tell me not (Sweete) I am unkinde  
That from the Nunnerie  
Of thy chaste Breaste and quiet Minde  
To Warre and Armes I flie.

True; a new Mistresse now I chase,  
The first Foe in the Field,  
And with a stronger Faith imbrace  
A Sword a Horse a Shield.

Yet this Inconstancy is such  
As you too shall adore;  
I could not love thee (Deare) so much,  
Lov'd I not Honour more."

In form as perfect as the musical "Althea", this song is inspired by the inspiration of the poet's life. He was the embodiment of all that was best in Cavalier England, and there breathes from his verses the best spirit of those times, in which, as in his life, light and darkness were so strangely blended.

#### GARDEN PESTS.

HAPPY those of us whose memories go back with something of delight to half-visionary gardens of early days, whether they were but narrow patches between suburban oak-palings, or the boundless ranges of ancient country houses with labyrinths to be lost in among the high fruit-walls and colonnades of yew; gardens where everything grew of itself, where seeds came up as easily as the sun rose, and flowers opened with no more looking-after than the stars coming out at night, before our personal experiments with nasturtiums or mustard and cress began to put to us something of the riddle of the painful earth and gave us the inevitable choice of being for life either root-people or fruit-people—grubbers in the cold clay for what may be found there, or neat-fingered pluckers of the unlaborious peach or rose. The gardener-man who moved among the shadowy walks and lawns, whether he were a retainer of state, with velvetens and high gaiters and a manner due to a position, or only a casual pipe-smoking, once-a-week jobber, was no mere workman, but a sort of genius of the place, not to be enquired into, a guardian with an awful eye for small footprints across a new-raked seed-bed and a memory tenacious of every plum on an espalier. We were not troubled to connect particularly his surly diggings and hoeings with the cabbages or strawberries; it was the garden which grew things, in those days, not the gardener. Yet in all that ancient peace the signs of warfare must have been constantly before our eyes. Anyone whose first days—or even holidays—ran in any respectable sort of garden must recall the blackbird flapping under the strawberry nets, the knots of caterpillars on the fruit-wall, the bang from the old muzzle-loader, well loaded and wadded with newspaper and corduroy, which sent a mob of sparrows clattering



out of the pea-rows. Some happy influence hid the meaning of it all; and so cherries were as much an ordinance as haws, and dahlias and pinks and striped tulips were shaken from the same wide cornucopia which sprinkled the buttercups and daisies on the grass. Somewhere in the days of this ignorance comes the point where the two great sects of the workers and the tasters divide. The one go on to the end of their time with an undefined belief in an automatic nature, an impersonal Flora whose business it is to purvey the good things of the soil; these are the people who never can be taught to know the difference between a pink and a picotee, to tell a Boursault from a Bourbon, but are furnished in season and out with the choicest of carnations or roses, as their taste inclines; these are they who command the planting of long herbaceous borders and rockworks, the toys of half a dozen summer week-ends. The other race shoulder their spades and picks for the obstinate sub-soil, take their eternal weeding-hoes in hand, collect their array of traps and nets, and set out to produce with vast pains for that leisured breed the things of its inconsequent desire. They turn up the wet soil on frozen mornings, and disclose wriggling or slimy monsters, to be seized upon without parley; they prune switchy rose-shoots, and presently dig out the ends of hooked thorns from their knuckles; they pick from the colewort the green caterpillar; they follow the ravages of small birds with fortifications of nets and threads. They see the under-side of things, the machinery behind the changes in the garden-year, digging deep and manuring, doctoring and sheltering their plants in wet and cold, so that some dilettante of the other school may on a June morning cast a light-hearted look over the quarters and beg or steal a basketful of the finest of the early Teas or strawberries, or that the new generation of infants may in turn run across the seed-beds, and try the counted apricots in blissful unconcern for gardeners and their wages.

To estimate the relative happiness or virtue of the two nations would take us far too deep into morality; but, admitting the unalterable truth herein of the *sic vos non vobis* principle, something may be said about the preservation of a certain balance, more or less traditional, between the pains of the drudge and the pleasures of the irresponsible taster of the garden. A book like Mr. Hooper Pearson's "Garden Pests" \* should suggest, at least, to an open-minded reader that the cost of producing a fair result is constantly rising. Indeed, the book's thoroughness in description and illustration is almost enough to fill a beginner with shuddering horror and to persuade him to burn his spring order to the seedsman and to go in for some less gruesome hobby. The new discoveries in the way of vegetable plagues during the last fifty years make a dismal chapter; and the recent additions to the list—such as the Iris-fly, first figured in 1888, the *Chrysanthemum-rust*, in 1897, and the American Gooseberry-mildew, in 1906—seem to offer small hope of any improvement. In spite of the aids of science—sprayings, washes, and such drastic measures as fumigating with hydrocyanic acid gas—we fail to do more than maintain a doubtful struggle against the enemy. And even supposing that scientific warfare against garden-foes will ultimately be far more successful than seems likely at present, the result, completed on the lines now indicated, might be excellent in several ways, but it would not be a garden. There would be no place in it for Nature's automatic bounty or careless-ordered grace, for the balanced compact in which man was little more than a partner with her, hardly at all a task-master. It may be that we shall in time become accustomed to look on a garden as a factory, always in a state of siege, a business-concern where the balance of profit depends upon the skilled extermination of hostile life. We may out-grow the surface pleasures of walking in the privacy of green and flowery places, shut off from outer strife; we have already learned too well, perhaps, to analyse, to look behind the scenes, to watch the mechanism of processes rather than the rounded-out result. We may lose our place in the scale, and begin to doubt our

right to think of the uredo or the coccids which ravage our crops as "pests" at all; why call "morbid" the organisms whose very health and vigour enable them to make such short work of our labours?

It is perhaps answer enough to such questionings to observe that they will be found to come almost entirely from the idlers in garden-ground, the people who take the fruits without the due corrective of acquaintance with the roots. The back-bending tribe, the sweating, crook-fingered folk have seen into all that confusion at least as far as the amateurs; they know as well as anyone how near to horror the puzzle sometimes goes; but they have a counter-charm which is only to be got by digging for it one's self. They have a ground-anchorage which controls too flighty adventures into transcendental horticulture, and perhaps into some more general ranges of speculation as well. They can look backwards as well as forwards, and in the present struggle, while facing fearful odds of native bugs and transatlantic mildews, keep something of the early mind which met with a majestic serenity the easy miracle of the growing-time of the year. A fully tempered mixture of these, the active and the contemplative energies, might defend us against many plagues besides those in the garden; and their more general cultivation might defer the day when a due reaction will teach us to say once more "*La peste de l'homme c'est l'opinion de science*".

## CORRESPONDENCE.

### GERMANY AND ENGLAND:

#### SCIENCE VS. RULE OF THUMB.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—The Kaiser's letter, the Navy Estimates and those of the Army, and the discussions thereon perforce draw men's minds to the consideration of the question of our relations with Germany, past and present, but more than all do we strive to pierce the future, and to make some estimate of coming events, and their potentialities. Much is spoken and written, and many arguments put forward, some weighty, some puerile, how best to meet Germany's increasing naval strength with economy and efficiency. Those words so often written in the above order should, I think, be reversed. Let us have efficiency, with economy by all means if possible, but if not, let us have the efficiency without it, but have efficiency we must! It is the duty not of our statesmen alone but of every one of the King's subjects to see that efficiency is maintained in what is generally looked upon as our first line of defence. But is it our first line of defence? Concerning it we are told that the Fleet is numerically efficient, the personnel was never so efficient, and the education of the embryo officer was never so efficient, as likewise that of all ratings. But I again ask the question, Is it our first line of defence? In reality it is not. As a nation, as an empire, the greatest of the world hitherto, our first line of defence is our commerce. The Fleet and the Army are only incidental to it. Crumple up England's commerce, and her Fleet and Army disappear automatically, and she sinks to such insignificance that she has no need for either. The Fleet and Army are necessary merely to protect our Empire and interests which have been built up upon British enterprise and commerce, and upon this the Empire must sink or swim. So long as commerce remains to us in an efficient condition so long can we maintain a fleet sufficient and efficient for our needs. Destroy the commerce, we may sell our fleets to the highest bidder for old iron; we should have to. Truly, therefore, commerce is England's first line of defence. Is it efficient? I remember reading some years ago a speech of Lord Rosebery's, and a paragraph—a short one withal—in the newspaper report of the speech impressed itself indelibly on my mind, and I recall it. I think that the paragraph almost bore the stamp of prophecy. In effect, Lord Rosebery said: "It seems to me that I see coming a future full of dread dangers, I seem to see a constant decrease in efficiency, and with that is coming the most terrible

\* "The Book of Garden Pests." By R. Hooper Pearson, F.R.H.S. London: Lane. 1908. 2s. 6d. net.

of all wars—a commercial war. And then what are we to do to survive it?" My quotation may be, is probably, faulty, but that was the sense of the paragraph of the speech.

No one, and I last of any, will say that efficiency in our Navy, and the Army too, is not essential, but efficiency, however great at first, in defence of a thing that is rotten, must fail in the end. I do not declare our commerce to be rotten, but is it efficient?

Not many decades back, a visit to almost any workshop in the world would have disclosed the fact that nearly every machine tool bore the name and mark of a British maker. Is that so at present? Emphatically no. The British tool or machine is on the scrap-heap, and a German or American made article in its place. But, worse than this, visit British factories, go to the great shipbuilding establishments, and look for the maker's name upon the various tools and machines. I say, not that you will find all of foreign make, but you will find enough, if you think of what it means, to sicken you. Have Germany and America beaten us in efficiency in this branch of commerce; the very foundation of manufacture, the creation of the ways and means by which manufacture is carried on? If not, why so much foreign machinery in the workshops of this country? Why, for instance, are those enormous electric cranes to be seen in several of the large building yards, appliances so beautifully constructed, so easy of manipulation, that one man with a few levers in front of him picks up anything—an armour-plate weighing many tons—and puts it into the hands of the man on the ship, and holds it there while he, and perhaps one or two to help, push it into its place and bolt it there? Why, I ask, has this beautiful machine to be designed and made in Germany, to be brought over and erected in British shipbuilding yards? Why is no design or construction of this appliance to be forthcoming in England if our efficiency is what it was? Or have we stood still and let others pass us in the race?

Some who cavil at any criticism will say, "Oh! this is all nonsense; nothing but the cry of a pessimist with an enlarged liver or the influenza". The reply is simple: "Go and see for yourself". I am informed on unimpeachable authority that in some of the large shipbuilding works as much as eighty per cent. of the machinery now installed is of foreign make, and that in one or two later instances of the erection of a new shop all the machinery installed is foreign. I believe in some industries—textile trades—the machinery is mostly, if not all, of British design and make; but whence came the tools that have made this machinery and the steel they were made out of? In the days when we were paramount in machine making, no other serious competitor was in the field, and it is not difficult to be first when you own a monopoly. Our rule-of-thumb methods were good enough then, and the manufactures, strong and substantial, lasted and served their purpose when the world wagged slower; then when a manufacturer laid down a plant he imagined, and with reason, that it would last his lifetime. Now an up-to-date American manufacturer, when he installs a new plant, recognises the fact that in ten years, if not sooner, it will be obsolete and on the scrap-heap. He knows that machine makers by that time will have so much improved the type of machinery he wants that in a given time his output can be doubled. But why and how is it that American and German machine makers have realised this fact and are taking advantage of it to our detriment? The correct answer to that question is mainly to be found in this fact—namely, that where the English Government vote a paltry £100,000 a year to scientific education Germany spends £140,000 on the Berlin University alone; and that is only one of ten Universities she subsidises in a similar manner and for similar purpose. Not only in tool and machine making, but in every class of trade in which they participate, is the most approved and scientific modern method taught to children and youths. They do not care so much for the slap-dash American methods of research known as the principle of trial and error; they wait, they watch, they benefit by the other man's trial, and they avoid his errors. Nothing is too trivial for them to try, nothing too small to notice.

They try it, inquire into it scientifically, test it, and then, but not till then, they adopt or reject it. I fear in this country we are far, far behind in this respect; rule of thumb largely survives, with which to face the scientifically trained worker, not the thinker only but the worker too amongst our competitors. Their system of training their men scientifically in all branches of manufacture, in all branches of trade, they test against our old-fashioned and often benighted obsolete methods of educating our own workers. There can only be one result: the progress of the carefully and scientifically trained worker may be slow, but it is sure. It is the steady relentless march of the scientific man, and it is as sure and certain to crumple up the rule-of-thumb man as is the incoming tide to cover the sands. German "Dreadnoughts" loom large and fearsome in the minds of many, but we are told by those whom we pay to tell us the truth in these matters that for the present we are safe, our Navy is sufficient and efficient; but even so, these same "Dreadnoughts" may be and are likely enough only the frontal attack, no more than a feint of a skilful enemy, used by him to keep our attention fixed on the matter of whether or no this or that naval policy will bring us out on the right side three, four or five years hence, &c.; while silently, insidiously, and above all scientifically, he is slowly marching round our flanks on well-surveyed, accurately-known commercial ground, so that while naval supremacy is being debated, and we are questioning this policy or that one, the "raison d'être" of the whole thing is lost sight of, and we find while we have been looking for naval dangers out of the front window, commercial disaster is knocking at the back door. Seeing that the incidence of taxation in Germany at present is barely half as much per head as it is in this country, and considering the rapid growth of her wealth, it appears there is nothing to prevent her Naval Estimates rising to 30 or 40 millions in the near future. It is said America could spend £50,000,000 on her fleet without feeling it. The sum is simple, therefore, to discover what we may be called upon to spend in the next generation to maintain a two-Power standard—40 and 50 make £90,000,000. This expenditure to be incurred at a time, too, when "that most terrible of wars—a commercial war—is in progress." To me, I admit, the outlook is appalling. But if I am right in my proposition that our commerce is our first line of defence (and I have just shown that it may be heavily engaged already with the enemy when the call for 90 millions is made upon it); then, indeed, it needs be in a state of perfect efficiency—educationally, scientifically, in organisation and in every conceivable manner. Where is that efficiency? Is it to be found in the senior or junior officers of our great commercial army? are the sons of our merchants and manufacturers educated and trained to carry on their fathers' business with efficiency, or do they receive an education which makes them "too big swells" for commerce, or "too big fools" for it? is it in the non-commissioned ranks, or in the rank and file? A walk through workshops and an inspection of the machinery does not seem, I confess, to leave the desirable certainty of this upon my mind. It is time we looked to this our real first line, not neglecting the other for one moment. It is time we stopped fooling with old-age pensions, with extravagant and inefficient education schemes, with predatory schemes of licensing, thereby incidentally reducing the revenue; and it is time we gave up the childish idea that unspeakable happiness to be derived from growing cabbages on County Council or someone else's land will effectively stop the exportation of our greatest asset—the youth of the country—by the thousand per week, that we might, we ought to, keep and make efficient, but whose places are filled by the less efficient or by undesirable aliens in too many instances. It is time too, I think, that some scientific efficiency was shown by our rulers, that they showed some signs of realising that science must beat rule of thumb or rule of party; it is time that faddists and fanatics were relegated into some limbo where they are harmless, or better still to some school where they could learn that so long as they are in this world they must take human nature as they find it and treat it accordingly, and not as they may wish it to be; and it is time we



looked to the efficiency of our commercial methods, realising that it is easy enough to lose markets, and that it is only by the sweat of our brows, scientifically directed, that we can keep what is left to us. For goodness' sake let us take unto ourselves some common sense and look at things squarely.

R. WILLIAMS BULKELEY.

#### FOLK SONGS AND DANCES.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

30 March, 1908.

SIR,—In last week's issue of the SATURDAY REVIEW there appeared a naïve appeal, signed by Miss Mary Neal and Mr. MacIlwaine, for funds to collect folk-songs and dances and teach them to children. I know nothing of the association to which they refer; but I know something of folk-song, and the secretaries' plain statements are there. We are told that morris-dances were taught to some children by two bricklayers from Oxfordshire. Now, one is justified in asking where these horny-handed sons of agriculture learnt all about morris-dances, and who, knowing anything of the subject, guaranteed that their morris-dances were genuine? Again, if one of the objects of the association is to teach these dances and songs to the yokels who have forgotten them, where are the dances and songs to be collected? And if they are not forgotten and can be collected, what need is there for an association to teach them? And once more, the two writers talk very lightly of the work of collecting these old tunes. But it is work to be undertaken only by such rare men as Mr. Cecil Sharpe—highly trained musicians with an immense acquaintance with an immense subject. Where are such men to be found? What guarantee have we that if they could be found they would be employed? It is all very well to get a couple of minor lords as president and vice-president, and to take offices. But that any folk-music will be "discovered" that is not perfectly well known already I more than doubt—I absolutely disbelieve it. Part of one sentence in this appeal I do believe—"We are urgently in need of funds". Without a doubt: most associations of the sort are, and the pity of it is that funds are sometimes forthcoming.

My belief is that little pure folk-song, or none, remains to be collected. Enough has been issued by Mr. Sharpe and others to keep the association busy for ten years, if they can secure teachers; and the associations had better leave the work of collecting to those who are qualified to undertake it. Anyhow, it savours of gross impudence to ask for pecuniary support without giving the name of a single competent person who is willing to join in the scheme.

Yours faithfully,

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

#### LORD CROMER, MR. STEAD, GENERAL GORDON AND EGYPT.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—Mr. Sykes and I seem to be in perfect agreement re Lord Cromer and native Egyptian opinion.

I said that Cromer was "ignorant (not oblivious) of native opinion". Then comes Mr. Sykes and writes "Lord Cromer . . . spoke no Arabic and understood neither Arab nor fellah", and again "who knew not Gordon nor yet native public opinion". Thus, as regards my contention we are in perfect accord.

True we deduce different consequences from the fact that "Lord Cromer is and was entirely ignorant (not oblivious) of native opinion".

Parallel straight lines continued indefinitely, do not meet, at least on this side of Jehannum.

In writing this word (Jehannum) I make a concession to Mr. Sykes, for he (apparently) translated his letter from Arabic, whereas I write mine in such poor English as I can command.

Yours faithfully,

R. B. CUNNINGHAME GRAHAM.

#### REVIEWS.

##### MANY COOKS.

"The Cambridge History of English Literature." Edited by A. W. Ward and A. R. Waller. Vol. I. From the Beginnings to the Cycles of Romance. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1907. Buckram, 9s. net; half-morocco, 15s. net.

THE merits, and the faults, of the co-operative method in history are well illustrated in this last venture of the indefatigable school of Cambridge historians. Even if its merits were fewer than they are, all students must needs be grateful to the editors for so serious and resolute an attempt to tell the story of our national literature. The field to be covered is immense; since the death of Professor Henry Morley, who left his task half finished, no single writer has set himself to produce so full and elaborate a history. Where the one failed, the many, banded under the skilled leadership of the Master of Peterhouse, are now to try their fortune.

The advantages of co-operation are obvious and certain. Equal care and pains can be given to each chapter of the story. No one is compelled to treat of matters which have not been his special study. The bibliography (which is so valuable a part of the "Cambridge Modern History") can be made almost exhaustive. The merits of the scheme, in short, are the merits proper to a dictionary; and they would have been more apparent than they are if the work had been planned, in dictionary fashion, to consist of articles on single names and topics, chronological annals of literary events, and catalogues of books and writers. The attempt to give a continuous narrative interest to the story, to make it literary, has exaggerated the defects of the book, and has somewhat concealed its real merits. It seems churlish to speak of defects where many of them are due to the inherent difficulty of the task, and so are themselves a testimony to the courage of the editors. For one thing, a history written in collaboration, if it is to have form and unity, must be the work of a school; that is to say, of writers who have undergone the same training, who acknowledge the same masters and aim at the same ideals. Such a scholarly community, available for the furtherance of English studies, does not as yet exist in England, and the editors have had to enlist recruits as best they might. The result is a bundle of essays on the earlier period of our literature, all of them painstaking and truthful, but most of them lacking that sense of background, that constant reference to the large perspectives of past and future, which alone can give continuity and value to a national history.

It is unlucky for the editors that their work has to begin at the beginning, and that what is incomparably the most difficult part of their task must be attempted first. In its later stages the history will strike a high road beaten by many feet; here it is compelled to do much pioneer work, and some of the less experienced contributors are overwhelmed by the weight of their baggage. They struggle bravely with adversity, and preserve the semblance of a literary bearing, but it is only the semblance. In truth their difficulties are enormous. Every literary history, whatever else it may choose to do or to leave undone, should do at least two things; it should give some kind of account and impression, as vivid as possible, of the principal works enumerated; and should, further, arrange these impressions in such a way as to give new meaning to them, illustrating them by parallels ancient and modern, animating them by allusion to the manners of the time, exhibiting them as incidents in the secular processes of thought and art. For the larger of these tasks some of the authors of this volume are not very well qualified. It is with a sense of refreshment that the reader comes on such a decisive judgment as this of Dr. M. R. James' on Aldhelm: "We cannot truly declare that the literature of the world would be much the poorer for the loss of his writings." Professor W. P. Ker, whose essay on the metrical romances is the best in the book, strikes the same confident note, and exhibits the same breadth of view. "Briefly and roughly", he says, "the history of the English romances might be put in this way. About the year

1200 French literature came to dominate the whole of Christendom, especially in the matter of stories; not only sending abroad the French tales of Charlemagne and Roland, but importing plots, scenery and so forth, from many lands, Wales and Brittany, Greece and the further east, and giving new French forms to them, which were admired, and, as far as possible, borrowed by foreign nations, according to their several tastes and abilities. The English took a large share in this trade. Generally speaking, their taste was easily satisfied. What they wanted was adventures; slaughter of Saracens, fights with dragons and giants, rightful heirs getting their own again, innocent princesses championed against their felon adversaries. Such commodities were purveyed by popular authors, who adapted from the French what suited them and left out the things in which the French authors were most interested—the ornamental passages. The English romance writers worked for common minstrels and their audiences, and were not particular about their style." Behind such a passage as that there is knowledge, wide, exact, and sufficiently assured of itself to venture on a real historical statement. But such statements are all too few. What takes their place is commonly a series of laborious descriptions of single works. This, for instance, is what we are told of the "Poema Morale"—"by far the most important and interesting work", it is suggested, of the century from 1150 to 1250: "The treatment of the subject has much that is new. It shows real feeling, though there are also the usual conventionalities; the poem contains ripe wisdom and sage advice. If the description of Hell is characteristically material, Heaven, on the other hand, is spiritually conceived. The verse-form is also interesting. Here, for the first time in English, is found the fourteener line, the catalectic tetrameter of Latin poets. The iambic movement of that line is adapted with wonderful facility to the native word-form, accent-displacement is not abnormally frequent and the lines run in couplets linked by end-rime. The old heroic utterance is exchanged for the paler abstractions of the Latin schools, and the loss of colour is heightened by the absence of metaphor with its suggestion of energy." What use does a description of this kind serve, and for what class of readers is it designed? Those who can read the poem do not need it; those who cannot read the poem would be glad of something more tangible. The author, admitted to feast on the delights of the "Poema Morale", has nothing to tell his hungry pupils but that some of it was nourishing and some was not, that there were certain new touches about the cookery, and that, on the whole, he found the banquet interesting. The most indigestible of samples, brought out and displayed, would be more convincing than this. In general the writers are too much afraid of quotation. Skilfully chosen quotations, elucidated by a few remarks, help the reader far more, even where the language is difficult, than all the pomp of vague judgments. The pleasantest pages of the book are those which are illumined by a rare quotation. This, for instance, is William of Malmesbury's account of the first crusade:

"This ardent love not only inspired the continental provinces, but even all who had heard the name of Christ, whether in the most distant islands or savage countries. The Welshman left his hunting, the Scot his fellowship with vermin, the Dane his drinking-party, the Norwegian his raw fish. Lands were deserted of their husbandmen; houses of their inhabitants; even whole cities migrated; there was no regard to relationship; affection to their country was held in little esteem; God alone was placed before their eyes. Whatever was stored in granaries or hoarded in chambers to answer the hopes of the avaricious husbandman or the covetousness of the miser, all, all was deserted; they hungered and thirsted after Jerusalem alone." A passage like this introduces us not only to the manner of the chronicler but to some sense of the life and interests which are the stuff of literature.

The earlier period of English literature has been very inadequately handled by previous historians. When, therefore, the co-operative historian, having given a faithful account of the works that fall to his share, seeks for guidance in the process whereby all these fragments shall be made into history, he is at his

wits' end. Some help, by analogy, he can get from the histories of mediæval French literature. A few valuable hints may be gathered from scattered essays. For the rest he must fall back upon the commonplaces of literary criticism, which are far less trustworthy here than they are in the better known tracts of the story. A man of trained literary intelligence, if he read through the bulk of the metaphysical poets of the seventeenth century, would have something of value to say concerning them, even if he had never read Johnson. A man familiar with mediæval literature, yet preserving his foothold as a citizen among the moderns, could say something to the purpose of mediæval poetry. But if he is not perfectly at home with his material, he distrusts himself, is timid, and tentative, and superstitious; he finds but little help in the prefaces to the editions of the Early English Text Society, and falls back on statements which are by custom exempted from challenge. "The latter half of the twelfth century was a period of experiment and of conflicting elements. It was a stage necessarily unproductive, but of great importance, notwithstanding, in the work of development." A style like this, which is wrapped, as it were, in wool, can handle nothing decisively. Sonorous diction is made to take the place of exact thought. Even the editorial pen falls into the same lassitude. "The invasion of Norman favourites, which preceded and accompanied Edward's accession to the throne, and their appointment, for a time, to the chief places in church and state, led to the tightening of the bonds that bound England to the Roman church, and paved the way for the period of Latin influence that followed the coming of William, Lanfranc, and Anselm." An invasion that preceded and followed an accession, and led to a tightening of bonds, and paved the way for a period that followed a coming—all this gives the reader a great many husks to remove before he can get at the perfectly sound kernel. Everywhere he is put off by the same plausibilities. There is no period in the literary history of these islands that cries out louder for an historian than the reign of King Henry II., the age of the propagation of so many of the great romances. We hear in these pages of "the brilliant galaxy of scholars who flourished in the full light of the encouragement given to learning and letters at the court of Henry II."; we are told that the works of John of Salisbury, Peter of Blois, Gervase of Tilbury, and Nigel Wireker "throw a flood of light upon the studies and the pastimes, the intrigues and the scandals, the humours and the passions of those who dwelt in the high places." But of this flood hardly a ripple is permitted to reach the reader.

History is not to be written out of hand, in sections. It must grow up in the mind, like a poem, taking shape through long years, as the imagination adapts itself to slow accretions of knowledge. So were all the great histories made, and the misfortune that has befallen the Cambridge Histories, whether literary or political, is that they have been seduced by reverence into an outward conformity with an impossible model. There is much needed work for them to do, and their ambition obscures their real merits. We want bibliographies, better arranged than these; carefully authenticated annals, with the fullest possible citation of original authorities, and all the apparatus of scholarship and criticism. Then, when Science has done her work, there will be room also for the historian, employed by himself, to express his own conception of the whole drama.

#### A BURDEN OF BURMA.

"The Province of Burma: a Report on Colonial Administration in the Far East." Vols. I. and II. By A. Ireland. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin. 1907.

THE origin of this work explains its peculiar character. When the United States acquired the Philippine Islands, they had to face an administrative task for which neither their past experience nor the character of their Constitution had prepared them. It occurred apparently to someone that it would be well to see



how business of the sort is carried out by other white races who have for generations been engaged on the problems to which the Americans had now to apply themselves. The Chicago University appointed Mr. Ireland—a British subject—Colonial Commissioner to prepare a comprehensive report on the administration of the principal European dependencies in the Far East and of the Philippines. His brief and modest description of how he set himself to this formidable task is the interesting part of the Report.

He began with a year of preliminary study. Six months were spent in examining the libraries and record-rooms of the Foreign, Colonial and India Offices in London, of the Royal Geographical Society and the Royal Colonial Institute. Another six were spent in classifying and arranging his material. This done he went to the Far East and spent two years and four months in visiting and examining the various dependencies on which he decided to report. To get a wider basis for his comparison he included India, China and Japan. Wherever he went he gathered together official publications of every conceivable sort. The mere list of subjects is appalling. Of this class alone he collected over five thousand volumes. No single library in the world, he tells us, contains such a collection. To these he added about a thousand more volumes such as may be found in large libraries of reference. This stage was ended in 1904, and since then Mr. Ireland has been digesting and classifying his material, preparing the selected parts for publication, and writing his own descriptive matter and the lucid observations by which he connects, explains, and amplifies the selected extracts. The next stage of this herculean labour has been reached in the publication of the present volumes. They are on a scale proportioned to the scheme, and though dealing with Burma alone they contain over a thousand pages and weigh more than half a stone. Ten more, involving another five years' work, will be required to complete the enterprise.

No review could explain in detail the scheme of the work. Briefly, it contemplates a complete account of the administrative systems adopted by different nations. The exemplars selected are the Crown Colony system in the Straits Settlements and Hong Kong, the Residential system in the Federated Malay States, the Indian Provincial system in Burma, the Chartered system in British North Borneo, the Autocratic system in Sarawak, the French system in Indo-China, the Dutch system in Java, and the American system in the Philippines. It is a matter of regret that no place could be found for the systems of Portugal and Spain, the pioneers of conquest beyond the seas. As to each and all of these exemplars he proceeds to record everything bearing, however remotely, on the administration. An example will illustrate the thoroughness of his method. His account of the general administration of Burma includes a description of the different public services; the chief of them being the Indian Civil Service, he gives its history. This involves a sketch of the East India Company's officials, the conditions and growth of the service, its control by successive statutes, the training of its recruits in the colleges at Calcutta and Haileybury. Then he traces the gradual control by the State and the origin and history of the competitive system, quoting in full Macaulay's celebrated report on which it was based, and giving the various changes in the method of recruitment and examination since 1854. The intermediate and existing regulations down to 1906 are reproduced; and, lastly, a full selection is given of the examination papers set at the open competition of 1904. One is tempted to ask if such minute and comprehensive details, of a merely collateral nature, are really needed for a proper understanding of the administrative system of Burma. It would be more important to know the exact number of the members of the Indian Civil Service employed in the various cadres and the proportion in which they fill each branch or department of the administration.

It is not stated why Burma has been taken as the type of the Indian system. It is the province acquired latest, the least developed, and is in a state of transition. In every direction there is rapid transformation. It is the least typical of all the provinces under the Indian Government, though possibly it may be more identified

than any of them with the other selected dependencies. If Mr. Ireland had also included in his survey one of the Indian Native States, such as Nepal, Mysore or Hyderabad, the comparison would have been both instructive and interesting.

The special character of Mr. Ireland's work is its comparative method—rarely employed in such publications. He confines the earlier volumes entirely to the presentation of facts. He rigidly abstains from any attempt at criticism or comment—justly remarking that these will gain in effectiveness when the whole of the material can be analysed and presented in complete form. This, however, deprives the introductory volumes of their chief interest, and, as Mr. Ireland says, "no attempt has been made to make the Report attractive to the general reader" or to give the work an appearance of originality which might add to the literary reputation of the reporter. The two final volumes will contain a critical analysis and comparison of the material presented as to each dependency. In these the whole interest of the work must centre, and further criticism may well be postponed until they appear. It is astonishing to learn that Mr. Ireland has had no literary assistance, and that he bears sole responsibility for this mountain of labour. Atlas might stagger under it.

#### "WHAT HAST HERE? BALLADS?"

"The Popular Ballad." By Francis B. Gummere. ("Types of English Literature." Vol. I.) London: Constable. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin. 1907. 6s. net.

THERE are two methods of writing the history of a nation's literature, one by setting it out in periods, the other by arranging it according to species or genres. The one way may be called the chronological or horizontal method, the other the typical or vertical. Both have inherent defects, but the second is on the whole the more sensible of the two. A division into species is less arbitrary and misleading than a division into epochs, for though different species overlap one another to a certain extent, the lines of demarcation are more clearly defined than those which are sought to be fixed between the literature of one century and the literature of the next. The series of which the first volume is now under review follows the second method. If it continues as it has begun, and if every type of English literature is as comprehensively and ably dealt with as the ballad-type is here by Professor Gummere, the general editor and his collaborators may congratulate themselves.

It should be humiliating for Englishmen to reflect that it was left to an American, the late Francis James Child, to compile the five thick volumes of "English and Scottish Popular Ballads" which are familiar and invaluable to all students of this subject. But self-reproach is forgotten in admiration of his work. Child himself unfortunately did not live to finish his task. However, he was more than a scholar and an editor; he was the founder of a school, and he had the gift of being able to transmit to others both his learning and his zeal. Thus his pupils, Professor Kittredge and Professor Gummere, were fully equipped to complete what their master had begun. Professor Kittredge wrote an elaborate introduction, embodying the well-considered conclusions at which Child himself had arrived, but which he had not time to reduce into permanent form. Professor Gummere, having already made a name for himself by his "Beginnings of Poetry" some years ago, now gives further proof of his sound training and scholarship in the present volume.

In his first chapter, which with mistaken humility (for it is an admirably clear and instructive summary) he advises his readers to omit, he recapitulates the conceded facts as to the definition and origins of the popular ballad. What, then, does that term mean? It "is a conglomerate of choral, dramatic, lyric, and epic elements which are due now to some suggestive refrain, now to improvisation, now to memory, now to individual invention, and are forced into a more or less poetic unity by the pressure of tradition in long stretches of time". A ballad has no author: no one man can

compose one. It is the product of several minds, or rather of the communal mind, evolved at some festal gathering. The exact process by which ballads came into being we cannot follow; it will never be known till philosophers have reached a better understanding of the psychology of crowds. Take juries for instance. A jury of twelve men will sometimes quite unconsciously return a verdict which does not really express the opinion of any one of them. "And that is the verdict of you all?" they are asked; "It is", replies the foreman. It is the verdict of the twelve thinking as one, not of the twelve individual minds, though not one of the twelve is conscious of having surrendered his personal opinion—if indeed he ever had one. Verily the communal mind works in mysterious ways. Professor Gummere, in examining ballad-structure, lays especial stress on what he calls "incremental repetition" as the final proof of popular origin. He shows how the story first lingers, then leaps over wide stretches of time and space, and argues that "this combination of lingering and leaping points unerringly back to choral conditions, to a dance where the crowd moves to its own singing, and where the song, mainly repetition, got its matter from successive stages or shifts of what may be called a situation rather than a story. Literal repetition yielded, for the sake of progress, to this repetition with increments, developing the situation". This peculiarity, if recognised by other writers, has not till now been so convincingly established or so abundantly illustrated.

In the course of his 350 pages Professor Gummere finds occasion to refer to nearly all of the 305 ballads, which Child's careful judgment declared to be genuinely popular, and he also notices, we are pleased to see, Mr. Frank Sidgwick's recent discovery of "The Bitter Withy". But he is careful never to make his references idly; they are always apt to his argument. His lucid style, his occasional humour, his frequent and pertinent allusions to other branches of literature, in which he is well versed, all contribute to make his book as readable as it will be useful.

#### A "PRETTY LITTLE SOLDIER MAN".

"Dyott's Diary, 1781-1845." Edited by Reginald W. Jeffery. London: Constable. 1907. 31s. 6d. net.

THE diary of General Thomas Dyott, although of no particular importance as a whole, throws some light upon various matters of interest, such for example as "the way they had in the army" a century ago. The editor has wisely avoided a title suggesting a military memoir, for, in spite of Dyott having attained full general's rank, he had, on his own showing, no great amount of soldierly instinct, and, being one of those who had private means enough and influence to make soldiering easy and pleasant, elected to do so.

After some years' service in the 4th Foot in Ireland, Canada, and the West Indies, including intervals of protracted leave and of half-pay, he became a captain. This was in 1793. By a judicious manipulation of private interests and of the purchase system he blossomed into a major the following year, and only a few months later into lieutenant-colonel commanding a regiment: not a bad record after fourteen years' commissioned rank with no war services.

His diaries are full of names of men, with pungent remarks on not a few of them, whose descendants are well known to the present generation, the index containing an amazing list of what may be styled "the titled and landed classes" among whom he lived. When in Canada he became very intimate with Prince William (afterwards William IV.) and on one occasion assisted H.R.H. in drinking sixty-three bottles of wine among twenty guests. It therefore is hardly surprising that a not uncommon entry in his early diary was "Got very drunk", varied by "Also got very drunk". In 1799 his regiment went on service to the Helder, but Dyott remained in England as an A.A.G. and met with his reward, being promoted colonel and made A.D.C. to King George III. He became a great favourite with the old King and accompanied him to Weymouth on several occasions. In 1801 he took part in the second expedition to Egypt, which resulted in the French evacuation. During the

next few years he held various Staff appointments and was a good deal at Court. It was during this time that he was suddenly ordered to Gibraltar, the regiment he commanded there having shown signs of mutiny. But owing to his duties as A.D.C. this was highly inconvenient for him, and the difficulty was solved by bringing the regiment home.

In 1808 he was promoted major-general and ordered on active service to the Mediterranean, but somehow remained in England in command of troops at Brighton. Next year he was appointed to command a brigade under Sir John Moore in Spain and actually embarked, but on arrival off Finisterre received news of the battle of Corunna and re-embarkation of the British force. The famous Craufurd came on board the ship he was in, and it is characteristic of Dyott that all he says about Sir John Moore's historic march is: "I was much amused with the accounts of the campaign, and found General Craufurd a most intelligent and pleasant man." According to most authorities, those who served under the gallant Craufurd during the memorable retreat were neither greatly amused nor did they find their iron-willed chief particularly pleasant!

No sooner was Dyott back from Spain than he went on the disastrous Walcheren Expedition. The next year came the chance of his lifetime, as a soldier, for he was ordered to join the Army in Portugal under Lord Wellington as a Major-General on the Staff. Incredible as it may seem, he "asked permission to decline" the honour and remained at home, where he took up duties "to inspect local militia"! Dyott settled down at his home in Staffordshire in 1825 and lived there for over twenty years, until his death in 1846. During this period he took a keen interest in politics and in all public affairs, and his description of the condition of the country and of the agricultural classes during the years when the nation was in the throes of Roman Catholic Emancipation, the Reform Bill and the Repeal of the Corn Laws is very instructive reading at present.

He writes in 1833: "The House of Commons since assembling have been wholly and incessantly engaged with Irish affairs. The Reformed Parliament has not improved the courtesy of members towards each other, nor does the course and style of debate give much token or probability of the change benefiting the country. Ministry at length find the necessity of employing strong coercive measures to put down the dreadful outrages daily committed in that infatuated country. If proceedings of that description had been employed twelve months ago, much blood and treasure would have been spared."

It is a question whether Mr. Jeffery, in editing these diaries, would not have presented them in a more readable form by grouping successive years into different chapters dealing with the successive phases of Dyott's career. As it is, the diary rambles on for some eight hundred pages without a single break, save for the

(Continued on page 442.)

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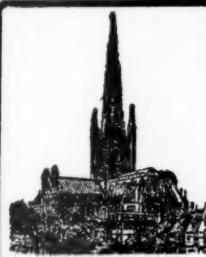
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accident of the binding-up of the two big volumes. Hence it is often difficult to know where Dyott wrote from at any particular time, more especially during his curious dilettante career as a soldier.

#### DEBRETT.

"*Debrett's Peerage, Baronetage and Knightage.*" London: Dean. 1908. 31s. 6d. net.

THREE years ago in a review of "*Debrett's Peerage*" we considered the scheme of the work. It was then observed that the scheme made it impossible for "*Debrett*" to be treated as a complete work of reference, owing to the omission of departed members of noble families. To that view we adhere, while recognising that the editor is the judge as to what makes for his purpose a "standard work of reference" observing accuracy as paramount. Certain inaccuracies however remain, attributable to the conception that an editor of a "*Peerage*" is the proper person to decide upon claims to nobility. Reference is still made to the person who assumes the title of "*de Morley*" in objectionable language, whereas accuracy would have been paramount if the whole paragraph had been omitted. The special claim of accuracy of course raises the presumption that no doubt exists where none is expressed, but there are several peers and baronets mentioned in the volume whose legal existence rests upon no better authority than the editor's private opinion. To omit them would no doubt be impossible, but a note that they had not established their succession in the usual way should be added in all cases or in none. If a person, who it is supposed cannot prove his right to a Scotch peerage and is created a new peer with the same name, is to be described as a Scotch peer with all his predecessors in a work whose accuracy is to be regarded as paramount, it scarcely seems just that disparaging remarks should be published of any claimant.

We observe in the new edition some alterations in the engraving of arms. In a few cases, such as that of the Duke of Grafton, a square plate of metal or glass has been substituted for a shield. We understand armorial symbols on a surcoat or shield, but the new design seems to us as meaningless as it is ugly. Some few of the Peers are allowed coronets, the great majority are not. We have endeavoured without success to ascertain what principle dictates this difference.

The translation into English of Latin and French mottoes on which we commented before remains, and in the majority of the examples examined the result is deplorable. "*Bibe si sapis*" (Brunner) is translated "If thou art wise, drink"—which perhaps refers to the possibility of there being no time to lose. "*Deo et Principe*" becomes "By God and the law" (Lamb). The translator evidently thinks a free rendering the best, but in scarcely any instance does he give the meaning of the original.

We observe on page 257 a list of "collateral branches living" entirely different in construction from any other example. We refer to the notice of Lady D'Arcy de Knayth's peerage. If the editor of "*Debrett*" proposes gradually to add a list of all provable co-heirs to English baronies, he will no doubt give useful information, while greatly increasing the size of his volume. In this first example it is not however stated whether any individual co-heir is in fact alive.

The truth is that to carry out the scheme of "*Debrett*" logically and completely is an impossibility except at immense cost.

In the preface to this edition reference is made to the report of a committee appointed by the Home Office to consider the position of the baronetage. It is quite right that this matter should be kept before the public, for no step has been taken to carry out any recommendation of the report, which reposes no doubt in the pigeon-hole of some official desk. Reference is also made to a subject of greater importance—namely, the effect of the Act for legalising marriage with a deceased wife's sister, and its retrospective clause, upon succession to dignities. The editor draws attention to a clause which is, as he properly states, not generally known, whereby all rights to dignity or property, vested or

contingent, which existed before the passing of the Act are saved.

The question therefore arises whether a person, who was before the Act heir presumptive, can be ousted by any legitimation under the retrospective clause, and it is not improbable that this very illogical Act will give rise to much litigation.

The preface concludes with notice of the enormous number of creations which have occurred in recent years, the number for 1907 being 455.

The labour therefore of preparing such a volume is obviously very great, and notwithstanding the defects we have shown in the volume, we, like most students, should be sorry if there were no "*Debrett*".

#### FRANK DANBY'S NEW NOVEL.

"*The Heart of a Child.*" By Frank Danby. London: Hutchinson. 1908. 6s.

WITHOUT disputing Sally Snapes' possession of the child's heart, one feels that her creator, or perhaps one should say her recorder, has attributed to it a security which she owed to a quite different endowment. It was not because she possessed the heart of a child, but the heart of an undeveloped woman, that she passed unhurt through dangers which might have proved disastrous to a more responsive soul. Her "I can't abide being touched", and "As for marryin', I ate the very name of it", are by no means the child's attitude, which is seldom averse from endearments and almost always favourable to the idea of matrimony. Frank Danby thus gets a certain undeserved prettiness of effect, for Sally in fact owed her safety to the combination of her sexlessness and her stupidity, one of which is so often closely related to the other, and her virtue is a much more negative and uninteresting affair than the author would lead us to imagine. That however is about the only effect in the book which is not honestly and even laboriously come by. The theme in its crude outlines is melodramatically commonplace; it is beset with every sort of conventional pitfall; its contrasts invite cheap and effective failure. The author does not avoid them all, but she brings such knowledge, sympathy and sincerity to her task that everything she has to say contributes to our appreciation. In all essentials, she tells us at the finish, the history was just as she has set it down, and it is precisely because she has an eye for the essential that she has been able to make it worthy of the setting. She sees that in such cases the compelling interest is reality, and she determines, even sometimes at the risk of irrelevance, to be real. She gives us not only a finished study of every phase of Sally, from the barefooted quarrelsome child of the slums to her perilous reception into the peerage, but she sketches with ungrudging detail the figures in the changing atmospheres through which she moves, and which, though in very small measure, went to mould her. She was one of those creatures who adhere naturally to a higher circle than her own, even though they can scarcely be said to have ascending aspirations. That, and the imitative faculty, an eighteen-inch waist, a pretty sense of rhythm, a sincere and simple soul, and her sexlessness, were Sally's determining equipment, but it was to the last of them that she owed her success; and it is the decision to misname that quality which makes one of the unconvincing moments of the book—the creating of her desire. Dorothea Lytham, the social contrast to Sally, brilliant, well-born, and corrupt, is drawn with just as deft a touch, the same sense of the essential, and careful avoidance of exaggeration. She is required, as typical of the influence which impels Lord Kidderminster to what the world regarded as his culminating folly. The badness of his aristocratic acquaintances brought home to his limited intelligence the intrinsic goodness of the factory-girl's nature, though he is made, and with reason, to share the illusion of the title as to its source. Though the book is rather the presentation than the interpretation of character, and misses in more ways than one a breadth of handling, it well deserves to be read for the very qualities which made Sally an acquisition to her new station.



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## SHORTER NOTICES.

"Memoirs of Monsieur Claude." Translated by Katharine Prescott Wormeley. London: Constable. 1908. 12s. 6d. net.

Monsieur Claude was Chief of Police under the second French Empire. He began his service under Louis Philippe and was Chief during the siege of Paris and the Commune and resigned in 1876. His Memoirs were written in ten volumes and published in 1881. The present volume contains a translation of the five volumes dealing with matters down to the end of the Empire; and this condensation has been obtained by omitting much of the material which was no longer of interest, being out of date. The historical parts that remain, the accounts of Louis Philippe and the Emperor and their entourages, the authors of the coup d'état and other Court personages, and later of the Republican and Communist leaders, are full of interest. M. Claude was in charge of the Emperor's baggage-train when the Emperor and the Prince Imperial started for Germany, and he gives curious and thrilling accounts of the efforts he had to make for its safety and of the hair-breadth escapes it had from falling into the hands of the Prussians. The Memoirs mostly relate to M. Claude's relations with political persons and affairs of State, but not the less interesting are the accounts of his dealings with criminal affairs of a more ordinary type.

"The Poems of Wordsworth." Edited with Introduction and Notes by Nowell Charles Smith. 3 Vols. London: Methuen. 1908. 15s. net.

It is not quite easy to understand to whom an edition such as this specially appeals. It is a very careful and thorough work, the introductory matter being well done and the notes packed with information. But there are already so many good editions of Wordsworth that we should hardly have supposed there was room for a new one on this scale. For ourselves we frankly admit that the best editions of Wordsworth, as of Shelley and many other poets, are those that do not include by any means everything. The pride of editors to-day, as a rule, is to get in "new matter": it is certain that this fashion will pass presently, and then the idea will be to leave out rather than to put in. There is a great deal of mediocre work in Wordsworth; and it is hard to understand what good is served by reprinting this; the inevitable result is that readers have less time to devote to the great and invaluable work.

For this Week's Books see page 446.

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The Company also works the Bahia Blanca and North-Western Railway (618 miles now open) and the Villa Maria and Rufino Railway (141 miles). On the 1st July last the working of the Argentine Great Western and Argentine Transandine Railways (537 miles now open) was also taken over, and by this means, the control of the whole trans-continental line from Buenos Ayres to Valparaiso, in so far as it is situated in Argentine territory, has been secured by this Company; and with the Bahia Blanca and North-Western Railway and its recently constructed extensions, this Company is in possession of thorough communication with the rapidly developing Port of Bahia Blanca.

The total length of the entire system now in operation is 2,341 miles.

The following table shows the continuous and substantial increase of the traffic results of the system controlled and worked by the Company since 1901:—

	1901-1902	1902-1903	1903-1904	1904-1905	1905-1906	1906-1907
Gross Receipts	£584,267	£718,001	£959,306	£1,263,636	£1,618,365	£2,074,591
Working Expenses...	394,457	347,497	533,083	719,111	882,404	1,199,842
Net Receipts..	£179,800	£370,504	£426,223	£544,525	£735,961	£874,749

After including the estimated gross receipts of the Argentine Great Western and Transandine Railways for the purpose of comparison in the 1906-7 figures, the estimated gross receipts from 1st July, 1907, to 28th March, 1908, show over the corresponding period of last year an increase of £372,395, which should be greatly augmented by the 30th June, 1908, as the General Manager reports that the traffic prospects are excellent this year. The wheat harvest has been the heaviest on record, and the maize crop will be more or less double that of last year. A large quantity of wheat has already been deposited in the stations, but threshing is not yet concluded. The grape crop is also abundant, probably 20 per cent. over last year. The recent rains will permit of the ploughing of more virgin soil for wheat and linseed.

The Company has obtained exemption under the Mitre Law from National, Provincial, and Municipal Taxes until 31st January, 1947, and is entitled up to that date to import materials for railway construction and working free of duty. In return the Company has to pay the Government a percentage of its net receipts.

The large increase in the passenger traffic has rendered it necessary to purchase more coaching stock, whilst the opening up of new districts served by the Railway and the increased area of land under cultivation have necessitated the construction of additional stations and sidings and the purchase of further engines and rolling stock.

Past expenditure of Capital has been fully justified by results, as will be seen by the statement tabulated above. Dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. per annum have been paid on the ordinary Stock and Shares of the Company since the year 1902-1903. The annual interest on the Company's Debenture Capital is £394,375, which will now be increased by £45,000.

The proceeds of the present issue will be applied towards the cost and equipment of branch lines, to the purchase of additional locomotives and rolling stock, and the general requirements of the Railway.

Applications on the form accompanying this Prospectus, together with the deposit of £5 per cent., should be forwarded to the London Joint Stock Bank, Limited, 5 Princes Street, London, E.C., or to Martin's Bank, Limited, 63 Lombard Street, London, E.C.

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Application will in due course be made to obtain a Stock Exchange quotation for this issue.

Apart from the contracts made by the Company in the ordinary course of business, the following have been entered into within the two years immediately preceding the date hereof:—

Contracts dated 24th April, 1906, and made between the Company and the Villa Maria and Rufino Railway Company, Limited.  
Contract dated 16th May, 1906, and made between the Company and the Bahia Blanca and North-Western Railway Company Limited, and the South American Light and Power Company, Limited.

Contract entered into on the 29th May, 1906, between the Argentine Government and the Company for the construction of lines from Bunge to Buchardo; from Chacabuco to the Alberdi branch; and from Rawson to a point near O Higgins.

Contract dated 4th December, 1906, and made between the Company and the Bahia Blanca and North-Western Railway Company, Limited.  
Supplemental Trust Deed dated 12th December, 1906, and made between the Company and the Trustees for the 5 per cent. Debenture Stock, securing £350,000 of such Stock.

Contracts dated 23rd April, 1907, and made between the Company and the Argentine Great Western Railway Company, Limited.

Trust Deeds dated 28th May, 1907, 11th October, 1907, and 1st April, 1908, and made between the Company and the Trustees for securing the 4½ per cent. Consolidated Debenture Stock.

Contract dated 16th July, 1907, and made between the Company, the Argentine Great Western Railway Company, Limited, and the Argentine Transandine Railway Company, Limited.

Contracts made between the Company and Messrs. Sheppards, Pelly, Price & Pott, and dated respectively 30th May, 1907, 11th October, 1907, 28th November, 1907, and 1st April, 1908, for the underwriting of this and previous issues.

The above Contracts may be inspected at the Offices of the Solicitors on any day while the List remains open, between the hours of 11 and 4.  
15,000 Deferred Shares of £20 each and 5,000 Second Preferred Shares of £20 each were allotted as fully paid in 1888, as part of the consideration for the construction of the Railway (subsequently converted into Second Preference and Ordinary Stock).

A Brokerage at the rate of quarter per cent. will be paid by the Company on allotments made to the public in respect of applications bearing a Broker's stamp.

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and April, 1908.

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Assistant Secretary—F. SANDERS.

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Ordinary Signature.....

Name (in full).....

Address.....

Holder of £..... Stock.

Date..... April, 1908.

\* Please say whether "Mrs.," "Miss," "Reverend," or give other distinctive description.

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**OCEAN ACCIDENT & GUARANTEE.****THE COMPANY'S PROSPERITY.**

THE thirty-seventh annual general meeting of the Ocean Accident and Guarantee Corporation, Limited, was held on Tuesday at the Institute of Chartered Accountants, E.C., Sir Thomas Hewitt, K.C., J.P. (Chairman of the Corporation), presiding.

The General Manager and Secretary (Mr. Richard J. Paull) having read the notice convening the meeting and the report of the auditors,

Sir Thomas Hewitt, K.C., said: Gentlemen, I am glad again to be in a position to congratulate you on the success of the Corporation during the past year, and from letters and many communications received from our shareholders and others all over the Kingdom I am equally glad to say that the success shown by the report and accounts is widely appreciated. We have had several years of satisfactory progress, and this year on the whole may be taken to be a climax in the Company's prosperity. To analyse the accounts—in the first place taking the debtor side of the revenue account—you will observe an increase in the total income from £1,381,934 to £1,985,112, or an increase of £403,177. The premium income has increased from £1,139,328 to £1,435,229, showing an increase of £295,901. The income from investments has grown from £38,989 to £45,400. To turn to the credit side of the revenue account, we find that the compensation paid, with additional expenses, has increased from £530,330 to £626,749, and the general provision for claims outstanding from £448,000 to £533,000. The expenses of management, inclusive of salaries, rent, directors' remuneration, and auditors' fee, shows a decrease of 2.33 per cent., which on so large a premium income is very considerable in amount, and there is an increase in commissions of £53,333, which naturally increases with the volume of business. To sum up this side of the account, however, you will, I am sure, be pleased to learn that there is a general decrease on the expenses side from 90.15 to 86.77 per cent., or a net decrease of 3.38, and we submit that this indicates careful management. On turning to the debtor side of the balance-sheet we must first recall to our mind that the general insurance fund is that which is the life-blood of the Company, on which its stability stands, and which earns from intending insurers the necessary confidence, which in its turn insures the prosperity and progress of the Corporation. The general insurance fund has increased from £931,000 to £1,105,646. It is composed of the provision for claims outstanding, which has naturally increased, being £523,000 as against £448,000. The investment reserve account in the balance-sheet remains at £101,000, and the provision for liability on unexpired risks, which represents the large increase in the business of the Company, has increased from £382,000 to £481,646, the accumulated fund amounts to £1,651,412, and the trading profit works out at nearly 30 per cent. on the premium income, including interest, or 64 per cent. without interest. The report shows the investments and other assets amount to £1,894,494. All insurance companies, banking companies and other institutions in the City of London have had for the last year or two to consider the value of their investments with grave anxiety, and I am sorry to say that our investments have also suffered a further depreciation since the last annual meeting. In lieu of writing down our investments, the practice with us has been to treat any depreciation as a temporary possibility, and the wisdom of this course is shown by the fact that, I am happy to say, since the report and balance-sheet our investments and assets, though showing a great depreciation, have risen in value, I am informed, no less than over £10,000. In any case, the provision we have made and propose to make is amply sufficient to cover any possible loss that the Company's investments may disclose. We now turn to the general result, and you will find that the credit balance of the Company has risen from £554,814 to £739,689; that, on our old practice of setting aside 33 per cent. for liability on unexpired risks, the sum of £481,646 must be deducted, leaving an available revenue balance of £258,042, as against £172,814 last year. The question of the disposal of this balance has been very carefully considered, and the directors propose to increase the interim dividend already paid of 7½ per cent. by a further dividend of 12½ per cent., amounting to £90,461, making a dividend together of 20 per cent.; also to declare a bonus of 5 per cent. in addition, making a total distribution for the year of 25 per cent. I suggest that this is by no means an unsatisfactory distribution at a time when many companies have been driven to the condition of having to cut down their dividend and bonus, and I hope you will regard the proposals of the directors with satisfaction. You will see that by the arrangement of an increase of dividend the shareholders will benefit by a more equal distribution between the interim and the final dividend if the prosperity of the Company continues, and this course is that which has been asked for by a number of shareholders who prefer to have their dividend more equally paid. The balance remaining will amount to £217,119, out of which the directors have decided to add £44,000 to the investment reserve fund, this representing roughly the estimated decrease in value of the investments on the last day of the year 1907, though, as before stated, there is already sign of considerable improvement. The next item to which I wish to draw attention is a sum of £5,000 proposed to be added to the staff provident fund. I am sure it will have a good effect on the staff, who will recognise that they are not forgotten in the days of our success. The balance required for the dividend and bonus will take the sum of £28,646, and the balance carried forward will be £168,119. In contemplating this last figure it may occur to individual shareholders unacquainted with the details of our business that undue provision is contemplated; but such is not the case, in the opinion of the directors. You must remember that we have had an enormous increase of about £300,000 in our premium income. You must also remember that we have undertaken fire business, which is a new departure in the Corporation's history, and requires incessant watchfulness. You must further remember that there is an entirely new liability thrown upon companies like ours by the statutory legislation in favour of the compensation due to workmen. To entrench, therefore, on our receipts to any great extent would, in the opinion of the Board, be a false policy, and they could not meet you with satisfaction if, as a result in some subsequent year, they had to entrench on the ordinary distribution for the purpose of putting back amounts for which insufficient provision had been made.

Having reviewed the work of the Corporation in regard to fire, workmen's compensation, and general accidents, the Chairman said: The question has been often put to me and the other members of the Board as to the cause of the success of the "Ocean" Corporation; and as a final word I am at last about to disclose the secret, so that it may be known to our friends and followed by our rivals. It is that, from our point of view, the policyholders must be met in a generous and liberal spirit, and our obligations fulfilled not merely according to the letter of the law, but in the spirit which has induced a policyholder to entrust his interests to our hands. This we have invariably followed with great success, and in my opinion our liberality has not in the end told against us; and although it may lessen by a few pounds the balance in our coffers, at the same time it has given us an amount of popularity which has yielded an hundredfold return. I now beg to move the adoption of the report and accounts.

Sir Clarence Smith seconded the motion, which was carried unanimously.

Sir John Runtz proposed a vote of thanks to the Chairman and directors, and Mr. J. O. Vinter seconded the motion, which was unanimously adopted. The Chairman briefly acknowledged the compliment, and proposed a vote of thanks to the general manager and staff both at home and abroad.

The Earl of Galloway seconded the motion, which was carried unanimously, and acknowledged by Mr. Paull.

**LONDON & THAMES HAVEN OIL.****A SATISFACTORY YEAR.**

THE tenth ordinary general meeting of the London and Thames Haven Oil Wharves, Limited, was held on Wednesday at the Baltic, St. Mary Axe, E.C., Mr. Owen Phillips, M.P. (Chairman of the Company), presiding.

The Secretary (Mr. T. Clarkson J. Burgess) having read the notice convening the meeting and the auditors' report,

The Chairman said: This Company was incorporated ten years ago to take over an old-established business. I think it may be of interest if I give you a few comparative figures which will enable you more readily to grasp the great developments that have taken place in your business since 1898. I shall refer more particularly to the Thames Haven property, because that, after all, is our principal asset and where the bulk of the business is done. This property in 1898 consisted of about 12 acres of freehold land. In 1907 your business has so grown that the wharf premises cover about 30 acres of ground. In addition to this, however, there is a large piece of freehold land (upwards of 45 acres) which we are hoping to make use of for a purpose which should be profitable to the Company at no very distant date. To continue the comparison: In 1898 we had one deep-water pier, and the tonnage of vessels accommodated at that time was about 50,000 tons per year. In 1908 you have two deep-water piers, and the tonnage of vessels which these piers have to accommodate has risen to close on 250,000 tons per year. The growth of the Company's tankage is, perhaps, more significant still: for, whereas in 1898 we had tanks having a capacity of 13,000 tons, we now have tanks having a capacity of over 100,000 tons. In 1906 it was found necessary to undertake a rather larger expenditure than usual on tanks, &c., and the amount of expenditure under that scheme was practically completed at the end of the year under review. It was in view of the lengthy period of time over which these operations were spread that it was decided to deal with the matter of finance in 1906 by loan, and to postpone making an issue of shares until the conditions became more favourable.

We have considered it wise to strengthen the Company's position by putting a somewhat larger amount out of the year's profits to reserve. In addition to this, following our usual practice, we have written off depreciation with a liberal hand, and are able to recommend the payment of a dividend on the ordinary shares at the rate of 8 per cent. for the year, which is the same rate as we declared for the previous year. The business of the year was, we are pleased to say, fairly satisfactory, the increases in some branches neutralising the shortcomings in others. Perhaps some of you may have noticed recently a renewal of the agitation to remove the restrictions now in force relating to the carriage of petroleum spirit in bulk on the river Thames. It has always been the policy of this Company—as much as we serve impartially all the different interests in the trade—to hold aloof from all matters which may be the subject of contention between conflicting interests in the trade, and, in regard to this matter of the importation of spirit in bulk, we have hitherto followed our usual policy, and more particularly for the reason that the greater portion of the trade is content with the present regulations. The discontented portion is, I think I may say, represented almost entirely by the Anglo-American Oil Company, who are desirous of bringing their ships carrying spirit in bulk up the river to their oil depot at Purfleet, which they may not do at the present time. Should these matters come to be dealt with by the authorities, we shall continue to endeavour to make for safety, efficiency and economy. It gives me pleasure to be able to congratulate you on another successful year's trading, and to be able to say that the year 1908 has commenced well and your business is in a thoroughly satisfactory condition. I have much pleasure in moving: "That the report and accounts for the year ended December 31, 1907, now presented, be adopted, and that a dividend on the ordinary share capital of the Company at the rate of 8 per cent. per annum, less income-tax, be, and the same is hereby, declared payable out of the profits of the Company for the year ended December 31, 1907, partly-paid shares pro rata on amounts paid up from date of payment, and that the same be paid less the sum paid in advance of such dividend."

Mr. Allan McCall seconded the motion, which was carried unanimously.

**RHODESIA EXPLORATION.**

THE Ordinary General Meeting of the Rhodesia Exploration and Development Company, Limited, was held on Thursday at Salisbury House, London Wall, E.C., under the presidency of Mr. John Seear, Chairman of the Company.

The Secretary (Mr. James William Clark), having read the notice convening the meeting and the report of the auditors,

The Chairman said they were all well acquainted with the reasons which made it advisable to write off so large an amount as £147,176. No particular item was responsible, the depreciation extending throughout the whole list. The profit and loss account showed dividends and interest received amounting to £10,227, as against £8,780 last year; profit, less loss on sale of securities, £8,800, against £12,713 for 1906; agency and other fees, £12,075; and rents received £347, against £467. The expenditure had been somewhat reduced, and the balance for the year was on the right side to the extent of £11,609, which, added to the carry forward for 1906, gave a total credit of £15,606 at the credit of profit and loss. On the other hand, they had to deal with the depreciation which has arisen in market values and otherwise, and had transferred £150,000 from reserve account to meet depreciation, leaving a sum of £14,647 to be carried forward to next year's profit and loss account. By adopting this policy of writing down assets to current values out of reserve they were put in a position to more quickly reap the benefit of any recovery in markets when it came about. With regard to their land, the more cheerful outlook and steady appreciation taking place in value, owing to the increasing demand for farming purposes, must ultimately have its effect upon their own assets of that description. Apart from the Antelope property and several tributary operations, no mining work had been done during the past year. Their engineers were hopeful that this property may turn out a large mining proposition, as the old workings on this line of reef are some of the longest known in Rhodesia. He then dealt in detail with the subsidiary companies, and concluded: "I have been looking into our assets, and it may perhaps interest you to know our present position. First of all, our liquid assets consist of the following: Cash and shares sold, £21,500; gilt-edged stocks, £25,600; other realisable investments at present prices, £76,000; loans to subsidiary companies, £8,100; loans on security and debtors, £17,000; total, £148,200. In addition to these I have picked out a number of our other securities which are not quoted on the market, and for the purposes of calculation have placed what, in my opinion, is a minimum value upon them. The total value shown is £183,200. Adding these liquid and other assets together we get a grand total of £331,000, as against which the issued capital of the Company is 254,000 shares. This valuation is without taking into account our other shareholders, or our claims, farms, stands, or buildings, and other interests, which amount to a further large sum, as evidence of which our stands and buildings appear in the books at much below their actual value. You will see that the Company is in a really sound position and has excellent prospects before it when markets and general financial conditions exhibit some improvement. During the next twelve months the Rhodesia Company should be in the happy position of receiving substantial dividends from several of the subsidiary companies in which they are interested—such as the Ban'et Company, the Selukwe Columbia Company, the Etna, and Gaika Companies—all of which will, in my opinion, reach a dividend-paying position during that period." He moved the adoption of the directors' report and the accounts, as presented, for the year ended June 30, 1907.

Mr. T. M. Thackthwaite seconded the motion, which was unanimously agreed to.

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